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The reality of the use of the Smart Board for teaching in Al Gheran area of Misrata public schools

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Abstract

The study aims to explore the reality of the use of the smartboard (SB) for teaching in Al Gheran area public schools, in Misrata. It also aims to show the most important features of the SB, and recognize the most prominent obstacles faced by teachers in schools with SB. The study adopts a quantitative research approach characterized by a questionnaire including 14 items. Forty teachers of primary and preparatory school responded to these questionnaire items. The data were analyzed by SPSS version 20, and then provides a set of recommendations and proposals to activate the use of the SB for teaching in Libyan public schools.

The study reaches several results:

- No supply or installation of the SB in Libyan public schools, despite their importance for the educational process.
- A number of modern generation of the SB (6) had been installed in some of the Libyan public schools of Al Gheran Education Office area, by self-help and cooperation of students' parents or a charity.
- Those SBs were used in most of the schools, only for teaching English or for presentation of some videos in some scientific subjects materials (biology - physics).
- The most important features of the use of the SBs from the point of view of teachers:

The SB is an effective way of teaching, and it attracts the students by writing electronically in all colors and sizes using writing tools on the SB program instead of writing with crayons and markers.

Save time and effort for the teacher, the SB saves a lot of effort and provides teachers with what they need as a science teacher for the figures and pictures, and the teacher of geography needs for maps as the English teacher needs a number of cards and pictures to display words.

The smart board

Nowadays a rapid technological revolution is taking place over the world. Modern technology, computers and digital electronics are playing a role that is increasing in the generation, organization, storage and delivery of information with infinite speed beyond the limits of the human imagination.

Technical progress peaked with the breadth of the information network. No one can deny the impact of the modern technology in all the different fields in the world, not only the influence on the physical, industrial and productive but extended its impact to include the social aspects of all kinds, and changed some concepts, attitudes, values and ethical ideals. Progress in technology has had a profound impact on the person and society, which reflected in the educational process.

Blackboard, as a teaching tool was the first revolutionary, which came into the classrooms prior to 1800 and intensely, affected the nature of teaching fields for the next two centuries. Blackboard as a mean supported and improved the traditional teaching; and it is still used as a symbol for traditional teaching.

Interactive whiteboard (IWB) or SB has the potential to prove the second revolutionary teaching tool. Betcher (2009) stated that Smart-Boards had the potential to be identified with new digital classrooms of the 21st century just as the blackboard played a key role in 19th and 20th centuries. Though the first SB was developed in early 1990s, it took some time to recognize its potential for use. Owing to its cost, it started to be used in business life at an earlier date compared to school environment. Once developers had realized the possibilities of using such a technology in education, it started to come into classrooms (Walker, 2005).

The SB is a powerful teaching tool for classrooms. It is a computer-based touch-screen and a digital projector conveys the image on a computer screen to the touch-screen. Teachers as well as students simply touch the surface of the board in order to control applications and write notes. The notes and scripts on the SB can be saved, recorded and printed. One can use a special pencil or his/her finger so as to write notes on the board in digital ink, to highlight any application, to give color to key points on a web site and to get ideas for brainstorm (Rief&Heimburge, 2007).

On the one hand, the use of computers in educational institutions has grown so that in a short period with less effort it becomes specialized means in the transfer of knowledge to the recipient, has led us to use the computer in the educational process to many of the latest technical devices. The SB technology is one of the most prominent of these devices and one of the inventions of the technological development in the world today.

The importance of the SB in the educational process

The Smart-board influences the learning process; it helps to facilitate educational learning practice in schools by stimulating dialogue and discussion during the presentation of the lesson because it can attract attention and make the focus of students exists throughout the class time.

It also helps teachers to clarify a plan before starting the class by arranging, organizing, and adding some elements of voice and image, so it serves all the contents of the lessons and all the syllabuses of the other subjects in the school and thus serves the educational process through.

Show lessons in an interesting way

The SB features the ability to use most Microsoft Office fonts and can navigate in a freeway, which directly contributes to the creation of the scientific material by adding special dimensions and features. It helps to expand the learner's expertise, to facilitate the building of concepts, to stimulate the learner's interest and to satisfy his or her learning needs. The scientific material is presented in exciting, interesting and attractive ways, and it allows learners to interact with them and participate effectively in the learning process and thus the survival of the learning effect (Becta, 2003).

Recording and replay of lessons

The SB can record and replay the lessons after they are saved so that they can be displayed to students, absentees or print the entire lesson of the chapter instead of writing it in the books, and it can be sent by e-mail via the Internet, and therefore will not miss any student absent from any lesson (Becta, 2003).

Solving the shortage of teachers

SB can be used to overcome the problem of lack of teachers in some subjects, so that can be re-view the annotated lesson fully by a teacher for another class is needed after downloading it on the computer or a CD instead of keeping the chapter without a teacher. Zoubi, (2011, p18).

Means to teach people with special needs

The SB serves the process of teaching people with special needs; images used through the SB, for example, how to move those images will attract the attention of the disabled students and focus information in their minds. Mechling, &Gast, (2007).

Makes learning more flexible

When using the SB, the learner can use the sense of sight to see things moving on the Smart-board like a display video, as well as sense of touch, such as playing with its tools using the icons, and this makes the procedures of learning process more flexible, smoother and organized(Becta, 2003).

Literature Review

Many studies (Gerard, Green & Widener, 1 999), (Eaton, 2005),(Jewitt, Moss &Cardini, 2007), (Shenton&Pagett, 2007),McClaskey& Welch' s (2009)revealed that the SBs brought excitement to theclassroom and a positive attitude from students, and because of the SB technology the students are being attracted.

At the same time, using such technology as the SB for learning motivates the students, engages them in their lessons, and encourages both teachers and students to interact inside the classroom. The use ofSBs in classrooms positively affects the motivation andengagement of not only the students, but also the teachers (Hodge & Anderson., 2007).In her elementary classroom, Sue Hodge's (2007) in a self-study of integrating an SB, she noted, that the SB "commands instant attention and engages the viewer" (Hodge &Anderson, 2007, p . 277).

As teachers, we think that it is not easy to satisfy the new generation students to use the traditional white boards with their markers; it seems as a silly idea since the kids can manipulate very perfectly, with the modern technology (x-box, play station and mobile phone).

We examined a number of the relevant studies in the present study in terms of methodology; including Arab and foreign ones.

In a work cited by Jewitt, Moss & Cardini, (2007), In Todd Wright's (2008) words,

what makes today's kids really sit up and fire their neural fibers?

Technology. Kids do not see laptops, MP3 players, cell phones, PDAs, DVD players and video games as technology, it is just life. Schools need to connect education to their students' lives with technology. (P.298)

With today's students, some of whom have a limited attention span and a need to be visually stimulated, technology integration is inevitable.

On the other hand, based on our experiences it will be more beneficial, and the class will be more convenient, interesting and active by integrating technology into the classes. Most notably, of many studies, we found that integrating technology into today's classroom is an important step to teach students of the 21st century (Barone & Wright, 2008).

Moreover, there is an exciting possibility of the SB, which is the fact that it is so interactive and improves movement and participation in the classroom. In Shenton & Pagett's (2007) study of introducing SBs to teach literacy, the teachers found that a key feature of their lesson was the student interaction with the board. They noted in interviews how much the pupils enjoyed walking up to the board and writing with the special pens and their fingers or using the touch screen (Shenton & Pagett, 2007).

The above similar findings show that interactive technology, specifically SBs, can have an important influence on our students and on their ability, create new meaning through their experience with the SB. We believe we would be doing a disservice to our students if we denied them of these exciting opportunities to be engaged by technology.

No study yet has been conducted on if the SBs are used in our public schools. In this study, an emphasis will be on how much reality of using the SBs in Al Gheran public schools in Misratah.

The importance of research

The importance of research stems from several aspects:

- Provide the decision maker with the significance of using the SB in or schools.
- Provide teachers with basic education on a theoretical basis; help them to use the SB as an innovative in teaching.
- Teachers may benefit from the research results in improving their teaching methods.

-The results of the research can be used in the development of macro and micro plans

for the training of teachers in service.

- There is no research or study according to the knowledge of the researchers conducted in this topic in our schools to help the teachers to be aware and accommodate the lesson.

This research aims to

- Know the reality and importance of the use of the SB in our public schools.

- Know the possibility of increasing development opportunities in teaching using SB.

The problem of the study

Hence, the problem of research emerged in the light of what the researchers noted from the weakness in the use of devices in educational techniques, the software that linked to the basic education level, and the low level of achievement of pupils and students at this stage. The current research problem can therefore be solved by answering the following main question:

What is the reality and importance of the use of the SB in Al Gheran area public schools in Misrata City?

The questions of the study

1- What is the real use of the SBs in teaching in public schools?

2- What are the most important benefits of SBs in teaching in public schools?

3- What are the obstacles faced by teachers in using the SBs while teaching?

Study Objectives

The study aims to achieve the following objectives:

1- Explore the reality of using SB in teaching in Misrata public schools.

2- Explain the reasons and indications for using the SB in public schools.

3- The most important advantages of the use of the SB in teaching in public schools.

4- Identify the main difficulties faced by teachers in using the SB in public schools.

5- Provide a set of recommendations and proposals to encourage the use of SBs in public schools.

Method

Research Design

This study applied a quantitative research focused on how much the SBs are used, and their future in teaching. To find out, relevant data were gathered from 40 teachers in preparatory and secondary schools. A well designed questionnaire of 14 statements has been distributed to answer the questions of the study. The data were analyzed by SPSS to find out and deeply comprehend data.

Participants and settings

The study emphasized on the importance and to what extent of reality of using the SBs for teaching in Libyan public schools. The sample of the study was

randomly chosen. Forty (30 females and 10 males) primary and preparatory teachers answered the questionnaire statements for seeking an answer for the questions of the study.

Research Instrument

A well designed questionnaire with fourteen statements were used for gathering the data.

Data Analysis

The purpose of this study was to explore out the reality of using the SBs in Al Gheran area public schools, in Misrata, at the same time to show the most important features of the SB, and recognize the most prominent obstacles faced by teachers in those schools with SB. The data was collected by a designed questionnaire of fourteen items which were analyzed on the basis of frequency and percentage to find out and deeply comprehend data by using SPSS version 20.

Results and Discussion

The results obtained from the analysis of data for each item in questionnaire for teachers will be illustrated in three tables:

Table number one is for answering the research question: what is the reality of the use of the smart boards for teaching in public schools? Table number two is for the research question, what is the most important benefits of using smart boards for teaching in public schools? Table number three is to answer the research question, what are the obstacles faced by teachers in using the smart boards while teaching? Each table will be followed by a discussion.

Table 1: Teachers' responses towards the reality of the use of the SBs for teaching in the Libyan public schools.

Items	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Not agree nor disagree		agree		Strongly agree		Total	
	Fr e q	pe rc e	F re q	Pe rc e	F re q	pe rc e	Fr e q	pe rc e	F re q	pe rc e	Su m	%
SBs are fixed in all schools.	28	70.0	7	17.5	5	12.5	0	0.0	0	0.0	40	100%
SBs are common and easy to supply for all schools.	25	62.5	10	25.0	3	7.5	1	2.5	1	2.5	40	100%
SBs are supplied for all schools by the government.	23	57.5	11	27.5	6	15%	0	0.0	0	0.0	40	100%

Table 1 shows that the 87.5% of the teachers say that the SBs are generally not available in all the schools. According to them, the SBs are fixed in just 4 schools out of 13 by parents' helping financially and charity. 12.5 respond undecided. 87.5% of the sample disagree for the second statement "the SBs are common and easy to supply for all schools" because the SBs are very expensive,

7.5% and 5%, respond undecided and disagree, respectively.85% "disagree" for the third statement which is the SBs are supplied for all schools by the government, while 15% are undecided.

It is evidenced from the above, and according to teachers' opinions, the lack of the SBs in their schools, and no supply of them by the government of the country.

Table 2: "what is the most important benefits of smart boards for teaching in public schools?"

Items	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Not agree nor disagree		agree		Strongly agree		Total	%
	F	perc	Fre	P	Fre	perc	Fre	perc	Fre	perc		
The Smart-Board can draw the attention of students by increasing the visibility.	2	5.0	2	5.0	3	7.5	11	27.5	22	55.0	40	100%
The Smart-Board provides the students with the opportunity for active participation.	2	5.0	2	5.0	0	0	14	35.0	22	55.0	40	100%
The Smart-Board enables what is explained in a lesson to be recorded and continued in the next class.	2	5.0	2	5.0	0	0	10	25.0	26	65.0	40	100%
SB makes lessons enjoyable.	1	2.5	2	5.0	0	0	11	27.5	26	65.0	40	100%
SB makes it easy to give a lesson.	1	2.5	1	2.5	0	0	11	27.5	27	67.5	40	100%
Smart boards help in making classes convenient, comfortable and interesting.	2	5.0	2	5.0	0	0	19	47.5	17	42.5	40	100%
SBs save the teachers' time in their classes.	3	7.5	7	17.5	0	0	15	37.5	15	37.5	40	100%

Table 2 shows that the most important benefits of smart boards for teaching in public schools were explored by means of six statements. The analysis of the results for the first statement revealed that almost all of the participants, 82.5% believed that SBs can draw the attention of students during classes, (10%) disagreed with statement one, and (7.5%) stated that they were undecided. Results of the second statement indicated that the majority of EFL teachers, (90%) believed that SBs provide the students with the opportunity for active participation., (10%) disagreed with statement.

The results of the third statement, the SBs. enable what is explained in a lesson to be recorded and continued in the next class. Showed that, (90%) of the teachers agreed with, (10%) disagreed with the statement.

The results of the fourth statement, the SBs. make lessons enjoyable. Showed that, (91%) of the teachers agreed with, (7.5%) disagreed with the statement.

The results of the fifth statement, the SBs. make it easy to give a lesson. Showed that, (95%) of the teachers agreed with, (5%) disagreed with the statement.

The results for statement six indicated that (90%) of the participating teachers believed that SBs help in making classes convenient, comfortable and interesting. and (10%) disagreed with the statement.

Finally, the results of the seventh statement, SBs save the teachers time in their classes, shows that (75%) agree, and (25%) disagree, which means that the SBs save the time for teachers.

Overall, it was possible to argue that the SBs have a lot of benefits which make the class more appropriate, comfortable and interesting, attractive for the students and help the teachers to create a positive teaching surrounding.

Table 3 what are the obstacles faced by teachers in using the smart boards while teaching?

As could be seen from Table 3, the obstacles faced by teachers in using

smart boards while teaching were explored by means of four statements. The analysis of the results for the first statement revealed that about the half of the participating teachers, (52.5%) believed that, teachers' inability to solve the technical failures by themselves during class hours. (17.5%) disagreed with the same statement, and (30%) stated that they neither agree nor disagree.

Results of the second statement showed that, (45%) agree that all teachers can use the SBs perfectly. (32.5%) stated that they did not agree nor disagree. and (22.5%)disagreed, which means that (55%) of the participating teachers faced some problems or they neither sure of the ability to use.

The third statement, training courses for using the SBs are provided for all teachers. Shows that (75%) of the participating teachers, disagree. (17.5%) agree and, (17.5%) stated that they are not agree nor disagree with this statement, results indicate to the evidence of the main obstacle for teachers to use the SBs.

The fourth statement, to use the SBs, teachers should have a good background about computer’s programs and how to apply them, shows that (80%) of the participating teachers agree, and (20%) disagree which means that having a background of the computer programs is one of the problems that face the teachers to use the SBs.

These findings show that the majority of the participating teachers had problems how to solve breakdown of the SBs during classes, lack of knowledge of the computer programs, and the absence of the training courses of usingSBs

ONCLUSION

Based on data analysis, the SBs or IWBs are not available nor easy to supply or install for all the schools, despite they are very helpful and important in the

Items	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Not agree nor disagree		agree		Strongly agree		Total	
	Fre	perc	Fre	Per	Fre	Per	Fre	perc	Fre	perc	Sum	%
Teachers' inability to solve the technical failures by themselves during class hours.	3	7.5	4	10.0	12	30.0	4	35.0	7	17.5	40	100%
All teachers can use The Smart-Board perfectly.	3	7.5	6	15.0	13	32.5	11	27.5	7	17.5	40	100%
Training courses, for using The Smart-Board are provided for all teachers.	16	40.0	14	35.0	3	7.5	4	10.0	3	7.5	40	100%
to use the smart-board, teachers should have a good background about computer's programs and how to apply them.	2	5.0	6	15.0	0	0	9	47.5	13	32.5	40	100%

educational process. Teachers find SBs useful, and many previous studies confirm that teachers usually have a positive attitude toward these technologies. According to the teachers, the most important benefits of SBs, they deal with more sensitive devices, provide visual materials and contribute significantly to

the process of learning, saving time, with the possibility of using all kinds of images through the computer as teaching tools and make topics easy, fun and interesting

According to teachers' opinions, the reason for the insufficient use of SBs is not only due to the SBs but also due to teachers lack of knowledge on how to use them or because the training courses, for how to use SBs are not provided. The primary difficulty teachersexperience in using SBs is their lack of knowledge on using these technologies. On the other hand, teachers' inability to fix technical failures by themselves. Also teachers do not find themselves competent in using computers' programs.

RECOMMENDATIONS

In the light of these findings the researcher recommends that technology such as Smart board should be used accurately in order to facilitate teaching and provide fun opportunities for learners to learn English language. The responsibility is shared between schools' administration and teachers themselves to integrate the Smart Board into teaching and learning English language, and reduce the challenges when they occur:

1. Smart Board should be installed in teachers' rooms. This encourages and enhances cooperation among the Schools' staff including English language teachers.
3. Teachers should prepare themselves for the use of technology such as IWB in particular and ICT in general in the classroom.
4. Teachers should have a clear idea of how a traditional classroom is different from classroom equipped with Smart Board.
5. English language teachers should share ideas, resources and experiences to help develop professionally.

6. Teachers should upgrade their knowledge and skills of using computer to minimize challenges when they occur inside the classroom.
7. Teachers should be aware of learners' needs and their different learning styles. They should be accommodated in English language classes
8. Teachers should read about Smart Board pedagogy – innovation in teaching and changing in methods to meet the needs of 21st century learners.
9. Schools should provide strong pedagogical support as well as technical support.
10. The number of computer technicians must be increased in schools.

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The Effect of Learning Using Cooperative on the Students' Performance in Reading Comprehension

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ملخص البحث

يدرس هذه البحث كيفية استخدام استراتيجيات التعلم التعاوني (CL) في تعليم مهارة القراءة لمتعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية (EFL) و مدى تأثيرها على سلوك الطلاب داخل الفصول الدراسية. على وجه الخصوص، فإنه يدرس كيف يؤثر التعلم التعاوني على أداء الطلاب في التعامل مع مهام القراءة مقارنة بأداء الطلاب الذين لا يستخدمون هذه الاستراتيجيات. كما تقوم هذه الدراسة بتحري و تحليل آراء الطلبة حول طريقة التدريس هذه. أجريت هذه الدراسة في قسم اللغة الإنجليزية بكلية الآداب بجامعة مصراتة خلال الفصل الدراسي خريف 2017. و تم جمع البيانات من خلال ثلاث طرق بحثية هي: الملاحظة الصفية لمحاضرة استيعاب مقروء، و التي يستخدم فيها طريقة التعلم التعاوني، و تم عمل اختبار، و أخيرا تم توزيع استبيان. وكان المشاركون في هذه الدراسة الطلاب المسجلين في مادتي الاستيعاب المقروء

ومهارات لغوية 3. وأظهرت النتائج أن استخدام التعلم التعاوني في تدريس مهارة القراءة له تأثير إيجابي كبير على سلوك الطلاب داخل الصف، وكذلك أن الطلاب الذين عملوا على اختبار القراءة في المجموعات التعاونية كان أداءهم أفضل في الاختبار من أولئك الذين اشتغلوا بشكل فردي وفقا للطريقة التقليدية. وأظهرت النتائج أيضا أن الطلاب الذين يستخدمون استراتيجيات التعلم التعاوني يحملون آراء إيجابية حول هذه الطريقة. وبناء على هذه النتائج، خرج الباحثون بتوصيات تنص على أهمية وكفاءة هذه الطريقة لتطوير مهارة القراءة في تدريس اللغة الانجليزية كلغة أجنبية.

Abstract

This study investigates how using the strategy of cooperative learning (CL) in teaching reading comprehension to learners of EFL (English as a Foreign Language) can affect the students' behavior inside the classroom. In particular, it examines how cooperative learning affects the students' performance in dealing with reading tasks compared with the performance of students who do not use such a strategy. The study also investigates those students' views about such instruction. This study was conducted at the department of English, Faculty of Arts, Misurata University during the academic semester of Fall 2017. The data were collected via three research methods: class observation of the course of Reading Comprehension where cooperative learning was used, a test for two different groups, and a questionnaire. The participants in this study were the students registered in the courses of Reading Comprehension and Language Skills III. The results showed that the use of cooperative learning in teaching reading has a significant positive effect on the students' behavior inside the classroom; furthermore, students who worked on the reading test in the cooperative groups did better on the test than those who worked on it individually according to traditional methods. The results also showed that students who use cooperative learning strategy hold positive views about it. Based on these results, cooperative learning shall be recommended for teaching reading comprehension to EFL students.

Key words: cooperative learning (CL), English as a Foreign Language (EFL), reading comprehension, interdependence theory.

Introduction

Teaching and learning the skill of reading has always been a concern for both EFL students and teachers. This exceptional interest about reading is due to the fact that reading is a vital skill for both personal and academic development. There are many approaches to teaching reading comprehension in EFL classrooms. One of these approaches is cooperative learning (CL), which is a part of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). Johnson, Johnson, and Holubec (1998) defined CL as "the structured use of small group through which students work together to maximize their own and each other's learning" (as cited in Chen & Liu, 2017, p.75).

When learning English as a foreign language, mastering the skill of reading requires a lot of patience and practice. Many EFL learners seem to struggle to improve such a skill especially if they reach advanced levels. Using the

strategy of cooperative learning seems to work in teaching and learning EFL in general; yet, it is here tested for the skill of reading only. The main thrusts of this study are first to examine the effectiveness of using the CL strategy on the performance of the 2nd semester students enrolled in the course of reading comprehension, and second to compare it to the performance of those enrolled in the 3rd semester, but they do not use the CL. It is worth mentioning that the tested students are EFL college students majoring English language at the Faculty of Arts, Misurata University. Furthermore, the effect of the CL on students' behavior and attitudes in the classroom is to be investigated.

Based on the reviewed literature, it is hypothesized that students receiving cooperative learning instruction can do better in a given reading test than those receiving traditional instruction. Furthermore, it is hypothesized that cooperative learning has a positive effect on students' behavior inside the classroom. Consequently, it is hypothesized that students' attitudes toward cooperative learning are notably positive.

The current study included only the students enrolled in Reading Comprehension and Language Skills III during the Fall semester of 2017. The exact number of participants was 72, and it was based on the available number of students enrolled in each course and their willingness to participate. Gender was not a matter of focus here.

A multiple-choice reading test was used to examine the effect of cooperative learning on the students' performance in reading comprehension. Moreover, a class observation was conducted to investigate the effect of cooperative learning on the students' behavior inside the classroom. A questionnaire was also used to investigate the students' attitudes toward using cooperative learning in teaching reading comprehension.

Additionally, the present study only examined the effect of cooperative learning on the students' performance in dealing with a single reading test and not on their performance in the whole semester. The attitudes which were investigated here were limited to the ones toward using cooperative learning in teaching reading comprehension, and not to those toward cooperative learning in general.

Review of Related Literature

Reading Comprehension in EFL Classrooms

Reading is one of the most important skills that learners of EFL need to learn. In fact, the importance of this skill seems to exceed the importance of other language skills like speaking and writing (Alderson & Urquhart, 1984). Alderson and Urquhart (1984) also stated that reading is very essential for personality improvement, professional advance, and academic work.

Hedge (2000) mentioned six learning goals that an English reading course should include: reading a variety of texts in English, reading purposefully with suitable strategies like skimming and scanning, gaining language knowledge such as vocabulary and structure, interpreting text meaning through

schematic knowledge, being familiar with various structures of written texts in English, and reading critically.

In order for these goals to be achieved, the teacher should encourage reading by: picking or making suitable reading materials, forming effective reading tasks, arranging useful classroom procedures, and making an encouraging atmosphere for reading (Hedge, 2000).

Definition, Theory, and Objectives of Cooperative Learning

Cooperative learning (CL) is a teaching method with a learner-centered nature and it is considered to be a part of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). The idea of cooperation in learning is an old one, but it was first introduced in classrooms by the American educator John Dewey in the early twentieth century. In the 1960s and 1970s, CL was more refined and improved in the US and it has been getting more developed since then (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

Cooperative learning has been defined by many scholars. Olsen and Kagan (1992) defined CL as:

Cooperative learning is a group learning activity organized so that learning is dependent on the socially structured exchange of information between learners in groups and in which each learner is held accountable for his or her own learning and is motivated to increase the learning of others (as cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 192).

Johnson, Johnson, and Holubec (1998) defined CL as "the structured use of small group through which students work together to maximize their own and each other's learning" (as cited in Chen & Liu, 2017, p.75).

Cooperative learning is based on social interdependence theory, which was proposed by Kurt Lewin and developed by Morton Deutsch. Social interdependence occurs when the achievement of everyone's goals is influenced by the actions of others as well as their actions. There are two kinds of social interdependence: positive and negative. When individuals realize that they can only achieve their goals if the other people whom they are working with achieve their goals too, positive interdependence occurs. As a result of this realization, individuals help and support each other to achieve their goals. On the other hand, when individuals realize that in order to achieve their goals, the goals of people whom they are working with must not be achieved, negative interdependence occurs. Consequently, individuals do their best to prevent others from accomplishing their goals. Positive interdependence results in cooperation whereas negative interdependence results in competition. When individuals realize that the achievement of their goals is unrelated to the achievement of the goals of others, no interdependence occurs at all (Gillies, Ashman, & Terwel, 2007).

Richards and Rodgers (2001) mentioned three basic objectives of cooperative learning and they are promoting cooperation over competition,

improving critical thinking skills, and establishing socially structured interaction activities to improve the communicative competence.

Research Design

Mixed methods were adopted in this study to find out how cooperative learning enhances EFL learners' performance in the skill of reading. Tashakkori and Creswell (2007) defined mixed methods design as "research in which the investigator collects and analyzes data, integrates the findings, and draws inferences using both qualitative and quantitative approaches or methods in a single study or a program of inquiry" (p. 4) (as cited in Creswell & Clark, 2011). An observation, a test, and a questionnaire were used to extract the findings. Both qualitative and quantitative data were collected through the three methods.

Participants and Setting

The participants were students enrolled in the courses of Reading Comprehension (usually taken at the 2nd or 3rd semester), and Language Skills III (usually taken at the 3rd semester) at the Department of English, Faculty of Arts, Misurata University during the academic semester of Fall 2017. First, the researchers observed a class for Reading Comprehension where the CL was used. Secondly, a number of students were asked to sit for a test to measure how the cooperative learning can help. Then, the same test was given to a different group to work individually. Finally, a questionnaire was distributed to those students who sat for the test. The exact number of the participants was a total of 72 students. Precisely, they were distributed as the following: 12 students for the observation, 30 students who used the CL strategy, 10 students who worked individually, and 20 students who responded to a questionnaire.

Research Instrument

Significant findings of this research were based on a multiple choice test and a questionnaire developed by the researchers. In addition, a class of Reading Comprehension, where cooperative learning was implemented, was observed.

The findings collected from the test and the questionnaire were quantitative, while those collected through the class observation were qualitative.

Procedure

Data collection

Permission was taken from the authorities in college to conduct the study. Then, communication was made with the teachers of Reading

Comprehension course and Language Skills III as the latter also included the skill of reading as a main part.

Data were obtained by a test that was given to the students and they were asked to work cooperatively. Observation was made during the class of Reading Comprehension where cooperative learning was implemented.

After that, the students were given a questionnaire to answer individually based on their experience on that class. The same test was given to Language Skills III students, and they were asked to answer individually.

The collected results of the test from both groups were compared to each other to find out the effectiveness of cooperative learning in reading comprehension classes.

Data analysis

In this paper, the researchers adopted both of the quantitative and qualitative approaches. The quantitative analytic approach was used to compare the participants' results in both of the test and the questionnaire; whereas the qualitative approach for the class observation. By using such approaches, this study aimed to identify and explore the efficiency of using the CL strategy adopted by the participants in the course of Reading Comprehension group as compared to the participants in Language Skills III. This way, the researchers hoped to provide evidence for the effectiveness of using the CL strategy in teaching the skill of reading.

Results and Discussions

The present study attempted to observe the effect of cooperative learning on students' behavior in the reading comprehension classroom; in addition, it examined its effect on students' performance in dealing with reading tasks compared with the performance of students who receive traditional instruction. Students' attitudes toward cooperative learning were also investigated through a questionnaire.

Observation

A reading comprehension class, where cooperative learning was implemented, was observed. It was a regular lecture and the time was 10:00 a.m. The class lasted for an hour and a half. The students were asked to sit in four groups of three. The students were given a reading test consisting of one passage and a number of multiple-choice questions. Following that, the students were asked to start working on the test individually for the first 10-15 minutes, and then they were asked to work with their peers. Students were familiar with cooperative learning as they used to it from the beginning of the course; therefore, no extra clarification of cooperative learning was required. The observation focus was on the students behavior while working cooperatively on the reading test they were given. Many traits of behavior were observed.

Interaction among students was increased. Students of the same group interacted with each other in a notable way. They interacted mostly in English, with a few words of their first language, Arabic, were heard. When they were

faced with any difficulty in the text, they started discussing this difficulty together trying to find a solution for it. In addition, it was obvious that the students were asking for each other's help more than the teacher's help. All of this helped in increasing interaction among students.

There was an atmosphere of sharing and support in the classroom. Students shared with each other the reading and problem-solving strategies they knew. There was also a sense of cooperation more than competition. Every student was doing her best to ensure the success of the group in understanding the task as well as her own success. Consequently, the students were very active. In fact, the number of passive students was limited to only two students out of twelve.

No major conflicts were found among the same group. When more than one answer arose for the same question, every student in the group tried to justify her answer until they agreed on one answer. Therefore, no students were trying to impose their opinions on their colleagues. All opinions were taken into account.

To sum up, increased interaction, more English practice, students' autonomy, experiences of sharing thoughts, cooperation, active participation, discussions of different opinions were all observed.

Test

A multiple-choice reading test (see appendix 1) was used to investigate the effect of cooperative learning on the performance of students in dealing with reading tasks compared to students who work on this kind of test individually. The test was given to 10 groups. Each group consisted of three students enrolled in the Reading Comprehension course. This same test was also given to 10 individuals, who volunteered to take this test, enrolled in the Language Skills III course. Individuals were given longer time than cooperative groups. The test consisted of six paragraphs and ten multiple-choice questions. The results were as follow:

Table 1

Cooperative Groups:

Cooperative Learning Groups		Individuals	
Right Answers	Wrong Answers	Right Answers	Wrong Answers
61%	39%	38%	62%

Cooperative groups' answers were significantly more accurate; whereas, the individuals' answers were mostly wrong as shown above in table 1.

Questionnaire

This questionnaire (see appendix B) was originally created by Pan and Wu (2013), it was used in this research because it looked for the same views that this research seeks. There was a scale of five columns for each statement, giving the participants the chance to show how much they agree with the statements.

The columns are titled as follows, (strongly agree, agree, somewhat agree, disagree, strongly disagree). This questionnaire was distributed to 20 students who receive cooperative learning instruction. The questionnaire had the following 13 statements:

Table 2

Cooperative learning inspires me to more active learning.

Strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	disagree	strongly disagree
50%	45%	0%	5%	0%

The results showed that 95% of the participants, who worked on the test using cooperative learning, agree that using this approach inspires them to be more active learners. Precisely, 50% strongly agreed, and 45% just agreed to the stated point. However, only 5% of the participants did not agree with this statement, which in general supports that cooperative learning enhances active learning.

Table 3

Group discussion helps me catch more key ideas from the text.

Strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	disagree	strongly disagree
55%	30%	10%	5%	0%

In the second statement, it was stated that working in groups helps in paying more attention to the main points of the topic being discussed. A large number of the participants with a percentage of 85% agreed. While some of them were in between and chose somewhat agree; they in fact reflected (10%). Yet, one student out of the twenty, representing only 5%, disagreed with this statement.

Table 4

Group discussion reminds me of neglected/ignored key points in the text.

Strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	disagree	strongly disagree
10%	70%	10%	10%	0%

The third statement asserts that group discussions help students to be more careful about the neglected key points in the text. Most of the participants agreed to this. While some other participants' views ranged between somewhat agree (10%), and disagree (10%).

Table 5

Group discussions help me have more comprehensive understanding of the text.

Strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	disagree	strongly disagree
30%	45%	20%	5%	0%

As shown in the table 5 above, most of the participants agreed to the statement 4 which claims that cooperative work raises comprehension of text. While a small number of them ranged between slight agreement and disagreement; precisely, 20% somewhat agreed, and 5% disagreed.

Table 6

Group discussion helps me determine the parts I do not really understand.

Strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	disagree	strongly disagree
30%	45%	10%	15%	0%

In the fifth point of the questionnaire, and as illustrated in table 6, it was stated that using group work helps students determine the parts that they cannot understand or difficult to understand if working individually. Again, the agreement indicated that 30% of the participants strongly agree, and 45% just agree; which is in fact representing a total of 75% agreement, excluding the 10% who somewhat agreed, and leaving only 15% to disagree with this statement.

Table 7

Group discussion helps me improve my exam scores.

Strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	disagree	strongly disagree
20%	55%	15%	10%	0%

The way students work in class seems to affect exam scores a lot since the majority of the participants (75%) agreed to the statement which says that group work improves exam scores. Students in this approach develop a very crucial technique which helps them solve problems in exams in a relatively short time. This can be justified to the habit formation that they acquired via working together in class.

Table 8

Cooperative learning helps me realize others' study methods that benefit me.

Strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	disagree	strongly disagree
20%	60%	20%	0%	0%

In this statement, (table 8) all of the participants agreed. It discusses that while working cooperatively, each student learns what study methods others use to answer questions. Numerically, 100% of the participants agreed, ranging between strongly agree of 20%, agree of 60%, and somewhat agree of 20%.

Table 9

Cooperative learning requires much more time to study.

Strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	disagree	strongly disagree
10%	40%	20%	30%	0%

For this statement, half of the participants agreed that cooperative learning needs more time to study. The other half ranged between slightly agreeing who represent 20%, and the left, i.e. the 30% chose to disagree.

Table 10

Cooperative learning brings more pleasure to study.

Strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	disagree	strongly disagree
35%	45%	10%	5%	5%

Most of the participants agreed to the above statement which says that cooperative learning brings more pleasure to study. As a total percentage (90%) agreement; divided into: 35% strongly agree, 45% agree, and 10% somewhat agree. However, the left 10% was divided into 5% disagreement, and 5% showed a strong disagreement. Such a strategy, i.e. the CL, enhances the notion of thinking aloud. That is, students are given the chance to think, talk, discuss, analyze, and interestingly challenge each others' ways of thinking.

Table 11

I prefer cooperative learning.

Strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	disagree	strongly disagree
40%	55%	5%	0%	0%

According to the findings of the tenth point, table 11, almost all of the participants preferred cooperative learning. In fact, all the answers were on the "agree" side. And no ticks were on the disagree columns.

Table 12

Cooperative learning increases my classroom participation.

Strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	disagree	strongly disagree
50%	25%	20%	5%	0%

In terms of participation, most of the participants 95% agreed that cooperative learning increases their classroom participation. Only 5% disagreed to this point, which surely counts as a less significant answer.

Table 13

Cooperative learning helps me share my thoughts, and help others which in turn develop my self-confidence.

Strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	disagree	strongly disagree
20%	55%	20%	5%	0%

Again, the majority of the participants (about 95%) agreed to the point which states that cooperative learning helps them share their thoughts and help other students, which leads to develop self-confidence about their cognitive abilities.

Table 14

During cooperative learning, I feel satisfied with the interactions made with my partners.

Strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	disagree	strongly disagree
15%	65%	5%	15%	0%

Most of the students preferred interacting with their colleagues during working on their tasks. Numerically, 85% of the participants agreed that they were satisfied with the interactions made with their colleagues despite the fact that only 15% of them had a different opinion, they were not satisfied with those interactions.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Conclusions

Cooperative learning and its use in teaching reading comprehension was the main focus of this study. Specifically, this study aimed at examining the effect of using the cooperative learning strategy on students' performance in dealing with reading tasks. Furthermore, it investigated its effect on students' behaviours inside the classroom besides the students' attitudes toward using such a strategy in learning how to read.

Based on the data gathered from the observation, it is concluded that the behavior of students receiving cooperative learning instruction was characterised by increased interaction, more English practice, students' autonomy, experiences of sharing thoughts, positive cooperation, active participation, and discussions of different opinions. All of these characteristics are positive ones, and undoubtedly their existence in a reading class is a good indication of effective learning.

According to the results of the test, the students who worked on the reading test in cooperative groups performed significantly better than those who worked on it individually. (See table 1)

The data collected from the questionnaire revealed that students receiving cooperative learning instruction generally have positive attitudes about using cooperative learning in reading comprehension classes.

Finally, the researchers concluded that their study findings come in agreement with the findings of the previous study conducted about reading comprehension and cooperative learning (Pan & Wu, 2013). Moreover, these study findings approve the stated hypotheses. That is, students receiving cooperative learning instruction do better in a given reading test than those receiving traditional instruction. Furthermore, cooperative learning has a positive effect on students' behavior inside the classroom. Consequently, students' attitudes toward cooperative learning are notably positive.

Recommendations

Based on the data analysis and the results of the present study, the following points are recommended:

1. EFL teachers are encouraged to use cooperative learning as a strategy for instruction in reading comprehension classes.
2. Since this study is concerned only with the effect of using cooperative learning in teaching reading comprehension, it may be interesting to investigate the effect of using cooperative learning in teaching the other three language skills: writing, speaking, and listening.

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Appendices Appendix 1

Read the following passage and answer the questions that follow. Refer to the text to check your answers when appropriate.

You know that you're doing something big when your company name becomes a verb. Ask Xerox. In 1959 they created the first plain paper copy machine. It was one of the most successful products ever. The company name Xerox grew into a verb that means "to copy," as in "Bob, can you Xerox this for me?" Around 50 years later, the same thing happened to Google. Their company name grew into a verb that means "to do an internet search." Now everyone and their grandma knows what it means to Google it.

Unlike Xerox, Google wasn't the first company to invent their product, **not by a long shot**. Lycos released their search engine in 1993. Yahoo! came out in 1994. AltaVista began serving results in 1995. Google did not come out until years later, in 1998. Though a few years difference may not seem like much, this is a major head start in the fast moving world of tech. So how did Google do it? How did they **overtake** their competitors who had such huge leads in time and money? Maybe one good idea made all the difference.

There are millions and millions of sites on the internet. How does a search engine know which ones are relevant to your search? This is a question that great minds have been working on for decades. To understand how Google changed the game, you need to know how search engines worked in 1998. Back then most websites looked at the words in your query. They counted how many times those words appeared on each page. Then they might return pages where the words in your query appeared the most. This system did not work well and people often had to click through pages and pages of results to find what they wanted.

Google was the first search engine that began considering links. Links are those blue underlined words that take you to other pages when you click on them. Larry Page, cofounder of Google, believed that meaningful data could be drawn from how those links connect. Page figured that websites with many links pointing at them were more important than those that had few. He was right. Google's search results were much better than their **rivals**. They would soon become the world's most used search engine.

It wasn't just the great search results that led to Google becoming so well liked. It also had to do with the way that they presented their product. Most of the other search engines were cluttered. Their home pages were filled with everything from news stories to stock quotes. But Google's homepage was, and still is, clean. There's nothing on it but the logo, the search box, and a few links. It almost appears empty. In fact, when they were first testing it, users would wait at the home page and not do anything. When asked why, they said that they were, "waiting for the rest of the page to load." People couldn't imagine such a

clean and open page as being complete. But the fresh design grew on people once they got used to it.

These days Google has its hands in everything from self-driving cars to helping humans live longer. Though they have many other popular products, they will always be best known for their search engine. The Google search engine has changed our lives and our language. Not only is it a fantastic product, it is a standing example that one good idea (and a lot of hard work) can change the world.

QUESTIONS:

1. Which event happened last?

- a. Lycos released their search engine.
- b. Yahoo! released their search engine.
- c. Google released their search engine.
- d. Xerox released their copy machine.

2. Which statement would the author of this text most likely disagree with?

- a. Part of Google's success is due to the design of their homepage.
- b. Google succeeded by following examples of others in their field.
- c. Google wasn't the first search engine, but it was the best.
- d. Google's success may not have been possible without Larry Page.

3. Which best expresses the main idea of the third paragraph?

- a. There are lots and lots of websites connected to the internet.
- b. Google created a better way to organize search results.
- c. Many smart people have worked on search engines over the years.
- d. Older search engines used unreliable methods to order results.

4. What is the author's main purpose in writing this article?

- a. To explain how Google overtook its rivals.
- b. To compare and contrast Google and Xerox.
- c. To persuade readers to use Google for internet searches.
- d. To discuss how companies can influence language over time

5. Which statement would the author most likely agree with?

- a. Google became successful because its founders were well-connected.
- b. Google was the world's first and best search engine.
- c. Google changed the world by solving an old problem in a new way.
- d. Google's other products are now more important to its success than search.

6. Which best expresses the main idea of the fourth paragraph?

- a. Links allow people to surf from one website to the next.
- b. Larry Page's ideas about links helped Google get to the top.
- c. Larry Page contributed to the internet by inventing the link.
- d. Google is a website that serves important links to users.

7. Which best explains why the author discusses Xerox in this text?

- a. He is discussing big companies that came before Google.
- b. He is explaining how companies must change with the times.
- c. He is showing how companies can affect our language.

d. He is comparing and contrasting Google and Xerox.

8. How did Google improve search quality in 1998?

- a. They counted how many times queries appeared on each page.
- b. They looked more closely at the words in search queries.
- c. They linked to more pages.
- d. They studied the relationships of links.

9. Which was cited as a reason why Google became so popular?

- a. Google's homepage was clean.
- b. Google provided catchy news stories on their homepage.
- c. Google homepage loaded quickly.
- d. Google provided useful stock quotes on their homepage.

10. Which title best expresses the author's main purpose in writing this text?

- a. Xerox Vs. Google: Battle of the Titans.
- b. Search Engines: How They Work and Why They're Important.
- c. A Better Way: How Google Rose to the Top.
- d. Search Engines: A Short History of Important Tools.

Appendix 2

Cooperative learning Survey Directions: Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement by putting a tick (✓) in the appropriate box.

*Cooperative learning = Group work.

	strongly agree	agree	somewhat agree	disagree	Strongly disagree
1. Cooperative learning inspires me to more active learning.					
2. Group discussion helps me catch more key ideas from the text.					
3. Group discussion reminds me of neglected/ignored key points in the text.					
4. Group discussion helps me have more comprehensive understanding of the text.					
5. Group discussion helps me determine the parts I do not really understand.					
6. Group discussion helps me improve my exam scores.					
7. Cooperative learning helps me realize others' study methods that benefit me.					
8. Cooperative learning requires much more time to study.					
9. Cooperative learning brings more pleasure to study.					
10. I prefer cooperative learning.					
11. Cooperative learning increases my classroom participation.					
12. Cooperative learning helps me share and help others which confirms my abilities.					
13. During cooperative learning, I feel satisfied with the interactions with my partner.					

the English Department in the Production of English Plosives

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to investigate the problem of English pronunciation experienced by first and second semester students in the English department, Faculty of Arts, Misurata University . It aims to shed light on the area of English plosives. There are some errors produced by first year students in the production of English plosives. The problem is that some students make unconscious mistakes in pronouncing voiced plosives particularly in the initial and final positions of the word. Furthermore, students do not pay attention to the aspect of aspiration due to their uttering of the voiceless plosives without aspiration when they occur initially in accented syllables. The instruments used for collecting data are recordings and a questionnaire. The subjects for the study are fifteen students from the first year and five teachers who have experience in teaching phonetics (I) & (II). The findings of this study revealed that First and Second semester students have some problems in pronouncing some English plosives. Some students pronounced the voiced plosives as voiced in all positions of the word ignoring the fact that voiced plosives are not always voiced especially in the final position. Furthermore, some students made unconscious mistakes by producing the voiceless plosives without aspiration, which is a crucial characteristic to differentiate between voiced and voiceless plosives. According to the results obtained from this study, some recommendations were provided to improve pronunciation.

Introduction

Consonants are speech sounds in which the vocal tract is blocked so that the airflow is obstructed. The blocking of air may be accompanied by the vibration of the vocal cords, in this case the consonant is voiced; if there is no vibration, the consonant is voiceless. Roach (1992) stated that consonants are sounds that obstruct the air breathed out from the mouth.

In English, there are twenty-four consonant phonemes. These phonemes consist of six stops: /b, p, d, t, g, k/, two affricates: /dʒ, tʃ/, nine fricatives: /f, v, θ, ð, s, z, ʒ, ʃ, h/, three nasals: /m, n, ŋ/, two approximants: /l, r/ and two semi-vowels: /w, j/.

Plosives are consonant sounds that articulated by the air being completely blocked in the mouth and then released suddenly.

In 1980, Gimson explained that the production of plosives can be achieved in three stages. The first is the closing stage which is made at some point in the

vocal tract. The second one is the compression stage which is a pulmonic action. The last one is the release or explosive stage.

In spite of the fact that voiced plosives have little voicing, some students may have common knowledge that they are always voiced in all positions of the word.

Roach (1991) expressed that the description of voiced plosives makes them inaccurate to call them voiced. In addition, the voiceless plosives are usually accompanied by aspiration when they occur initially in accented syllables. As a result of that, some students may make unconscious mistakes by producing the voiceless stops when they occur in accented syllables without any aspiration, which is a crucial feature to differentiate between voiced and voiceless plosives.

In the researches done by Al-Atrush (2007), Löfqvist and Gracco (2002) and Maclagan and King (2007), they considered that the production of plosives is not pronounced in a proper way in some cases. They described stops by their aspiration, the place of articulation and the state of vocal cords.

Definition of Terms

The following definitions are provided to improve understandings:

Aspiration. It is a puff of breath followed the release of the voiceless plosives /p,t,k/ when they occur initially in accented syllables.

Consonant. It is a speech sound made by the blocking of the flow air being breathed out through the mouth (Soanes, Hawker & Elliott, 2006).

Pronunciation. It is the act of pronouncing the sounds of a language. In addition, it is the way in which a particular person or group of people pronounce the words of language.

Minimal Pairs. A pair of words that are different from each other in one sound only, for example: pan and can.

Voiced Plosives in Word Final Positions: In English, voiced plosives /b d g/ are completely voiceless in word-final position (especially in utterance-final position).

Voiced Plosives in Word Initial Positions: In English, voiced plosives /b d g/ are partially voiced in word-initial position.

Methodology and Data Analysis

Participants and Setting

The participants were the students enrolled in Phonetics I & II course in the spring semester of the academic year 2016-2017. The exact number of participants were 15 students who participated in the tape-recorded test. Each participant took around one minute to read the sentences. In addition, five teachers who have enough experience in teaching phonetics I & II were the participants of the questionnaire.

The research was conducted in the English Department, Faculty of Arts, Misurata University.

Research Instrument

Significant findings for this research based on a tape-recorded test and a questionnaire. In the test, the participants read a list of sentences to examine their production of English plosives. Also, they have been informed that there was a tape-recording while reading the sentences. Moreover, for the questionnaire, the teachers answered it according to their experience in teaching Phonetics and also according to their students' production of English plosives.

Procedure

Data Collection.

At the very beginning, the researchers obtained all necessary permission from authorities to conduct the study.

The tape-recorded test and the questionnaire were the sources for collecting data. The tape-recorded test has done during Phonetics I & II classes. The test took around one minute for each student. The teachers were given 10 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

Ethical Consideration.

During the test, the researchers informed the participants about their anonymity and confidentiality. In addition, the recordings designed with a letter that reassured the students such activity did not affect on their grades.

Data Analysis.

The researchers used a suitable quantitative data analysis to answer the identified research questions.

Results and Discussion

This part presents the results of the current study. It answers the questions related to the difficulties of English plosives by first year students. The researchers used a tape recorded test and a questionnaire as a research instrument in order to collect data.

Table 1

Plosives in the Final Position of the Word.

Word list of plosives in final positions	Students pronounced incorrectly	Students pronounced correctly
Want	80%	20%
Homework	60%	40%
Bad	30%	70%
Sleep	10%	90%
Big	70%	30%
Proverb	25%	75%

The analysis has evidently shown that some participants faced pronunciation difficulties with some of the selected sounds. It could be summarised as follows:

The sound /t/ in the word **want** was pronounced incorrectly by 12 students. They pronounced it voiced. However, the rest of the students pronounced it correctly.

The sound /k/ in the word **homework** was pronounced incorrectly by 9 students. Nevertheless, the other participants pronounced it correctly.

When we come to the analysis of the third sound /d/ in the word **bad** we found

out that it was mispronounced by 5 students out of 15. An obvious finding is that the sound /d/ does not seem to be a big problem for the participants in this study.

The next sound is /p/ in the word **sleep** which was clear that only one student pronounced it incorrectly while the other 14 students pronounced it correctly.

Another problematic sound for first year students was /g/ which was apparently mispronounced by most of the participants as it is indicated in the word **big**. They attempted to pronounce this sound voiced in the final positions.

At the end of the plosive word list, the sound /b/ presented in the word **proverb** was pronounced incorrectly only by 4 students; others pronounced it correctly.

Table 2

Aspiration of Plosives Sounds.

Word list for plosives	Students pronounced incorrectly	Students pronounced correctly
1. Pen	75%	25%
2. Back	0%	100%
3. Dish	75%	25%
4. Try	40%	60%
5. King	25%	75%
6. Glass	45%	55%

Table 2 shows that the first sound /p/ in the word **pen** was pronounced incorrectly by (75%) of the participants. Evidently, it posed a problem for students. It was pronounced without aspiration.

The second sound is /b/ in the word **back** was pronounced correctly by all the participants. The third sound is /d/ in the word **dish** which most of participants (75%) failed to pronounce it correctly. They were 11 students who mispronounced it out of 15. It seems that the majority of students faced difficulties in pronouncing this sound.

The sound /t/ in the word **try** was pronounced correctly by (60%) of the respondents. Only (40%) failed to pronounce it correctly.

The next sound /k/ in the word **king** was pronounced incorrectly by (25%) of the participants, other participants pronounced it correctly with aspiration.

The last but not least is the sound /g/ in the word **glass**. This sound was pronounced incorrectly by (45%) of the participants. They failed to pronounce it with aspiration. However, the rest pronounced it correctly.

Finally, after analyzing the recordings, it could be seen that some participants faced some difficulties when pronouncing some plosives. The reason behind this might be because of the lack of practice by first year students.

The other research instrument is the teacher's questionnaire; the aim of the questionnaire which was given to five teachers who have experience in teaching phonetics is to find out the role of the teachers in improving the students' ability in pronouncing the English plosives.

Table 3

Using minimal pairs to distinguish between target phonemes which occur finally.

Always	Usually	Sometimes	Never
60%	40%	0%	0%

Table 3 above showed that the majority of the teachers use minimal pair activities to distinguish between two or more target phonemes.

Table 4

Using other techniques and activities than those presented in the book.

Always	Usually	Sometimes	Never
0%	40%	60%	0%

Table 4 indicated that (40%) of the teachers usually use other techniques and activities in their classes, while (60%) of the them sometimes use them. This indicated that teachers do not always concentrate on presenting some activities and techniques to help students understand the rules of plosives.

Table 5

Students are motivated, active and participate with the activities used in the class.

Always	Usually	Sometimes	Never
0%	80%	20%	0%

The analysis which was presented in table 5 indicated that the vast majority of teachers (80%) answered that their students have an active role by participating in the activities used in the class. Only (20%) said that their students sometimes participate.

Table 6

The use of recording materials in the classroom

Always	Usually	Sometimes	Never
20%	20%	0	60%

As it is provided in table 6 above, (60%) of teachers do not use records in the class, while only (20%) answered with always and (20%) also answered with usually.

Table 7

Giving the students the chance to pronounce the new phonemes.

Always	Usually	Sometimes	Never
80%	20%	0%	0%

It is obvious throughout table 7 that most of the teachers allow students to pronounce the new phonemes.

Table 8

The concentration on pronouncing the English plosives with aspiration.

Always	Usually	Sometimes	Never
40%	60%	0%	0%

According to the results presented in the table 8, (40%) of the teachers always pay attention on students pronunciation whether they pronounce the English voiceless plosives with aspiration when they occur in accented syllables or not and (60%) of them usually do that.

Table 9

Students pronouncing of the voiced plosives in the final position.

Always	Usually	Sometimes	Never
0%	60%	40%	0%

As it is shown in table 9, (60%) of the participants observed that students usually pronounced the voiced plosives in the final position as voiced. Whereas, (40%) of them sometimes do that.

Table 10

Students' problems to differentiate between voiced and voiceless plosives in final positions.

Always	Usually	Sometimes	Never
0%	80%	0%	20%

Table 10 showed that (80%) of the teachers believed that students face difficulties in differentiating between voiced and voiceless plosive in the final positions. However, the majority of them did not believe in that by choosing "never".

Table 11

Aspiration as a crucial characteristic that helps students distinguish between plosives.

Always	Usually	Sometimes	Never
40%	60%	0%	0%

The data presented in table 11 showed that the majority of participants (60%) believed that the aspiration is usually helpful and beneficial for students. Only (40%) answered with always.

Table 12

Effect of L1 on students' production of English plosives.

Always	Usually	Sometimes	Never
20%	80%	0%	0%

The results presented in table 12 indicated that considerable percentage (80%) of the teachers believed that the mother tongue has its influence on the students' production of the plosives.

Table 13

Students pronouncing the voiceless plosives as voiced.

Always	Usually	Sometimes	Never
20%	80%	0%	0%

The table 13 elaborated that (20%) of the participants believed that some students pronounce the voiceless plosives voiced. Moreover, (80%) of them usually did that.

Table 14

Students' pronunciation has improved by practice.

Always	Usually	Sometimes	Never
60%	40%	0%	0%

As it is provided in the table 14, the majority of the teachers said that the practice is one of the best ways to enhance students' pronunciation.

Table 15

The importance of exercises for students to make their pronunciation better.

Always	Usually	Sometimes	Never
100%	0%	0%	0%

According to table 15 above, all the teachers confirmed that exercises are useful for students to improve their pronunciation.

Conclusion

The analysis of this study demonstrates that certain English plosives are difficult to learn for first year students. It has been noticed that some of the participants encountered problems when pronouncing certain sounds. This difficulty varies from one plosive to another. Furthermore, based on the data analysis conducted in this study, some plosives seem to pose less difficulty than others. Few students appear to have problems in pronouncing these sounds in the final position of the word /d/, /p/ and /b/. Nonetheless, most of them failed to pronounce sounds such as /t/, /k/ and /g/.

According to the outcome of the research, the majority of subjects failed to pronounce the sound /p/ with aspiration. This mispronunciation is due to the fact that in Arabic language there is no an equivalent sound. Nearly half of the students appear to have problems in pronouncing the sound /t/. This could be clearly seen in table 2. However, the sound /k/ was not a big problem for most of the respondents.

The reasons behind mispronouncing the selected sounds are due to the lack of practice. In addition, first year students were not specialized in English at secondary school. They studied English as a general subject in their secondary schools and didn't concentrate mainly on the sounds of the English language.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the following are recommended:

1. Administrators should provide CDs with the syllabi of phonetics to teachers in order to allow students listen to the sounds many times
2. Sound drilling should be at all institutions so students there will be able to learn the basic sounds of English.
3. Teachers should plan various activities and techniques about the production of plosives in different positions of the word.
4. Phonetic transcription should be taught in high schools.
5. Students should use digital dictionaries in order to learn English sounds and pronunciation..

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**A Second Language in Misurata?
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Abstract

Teaching aids are considered to be activities to involve students in the subject matter and help them to participate in learning. This study aims to evaluate the significance of teaching aids in TESOL in the schools of Misurata. The study adopted a quantitative research including a questionnaire that contains 14 items. Forty teachers of preparatory and secondary schools responded to these questionnaire items. The data were analyzed by SPSS version 16. The study concluded that using teaching aids enhance language learning and help learners to visual stimulation and to access the content from a different vantage point.

Introduction

The topic of teaching materials is a topic of a lively debate. Using teaching aids came to the surface when modern teaching approaches accompanied teaching English nowadays. Teachers have to bring the world into the classrooms and make the learning as real life situations. (Bobkina, 2012)

According to Yasim, et al (2016), authentic teaching materials include using visual tools: illustrations, pictures, photos, symbols, icons, presentations, mind maps; audio materials: tape recordings, songs; and kinaesthetic materials: tasks, playing with cards, games, other activities. If teachers use them properly, they will enhance and facilitate learning a language.

Teaching Approaches and Using Authentic Materials

Authentic teaching materials are those real life materials that are brought in classrooms used for promoting and enhancing learning. They help learners to live and acquire the target language as if they are engaged into real life activities. Teaching aids are a fundamental component of language class.

Here, there is a brief history of using authentic teaching materials throughout the teaching approaches.

The Direct Approach was the first to include using teaching materials (Bobkina, 2012). In the direct approach, teachers use direct materials such as photos, pictures and other objects to avoid using the mother tongue of the learners.

Moreover, teachers provide picture slides and other teaching aids to help students to imitate what they have to learn in audio-lingual approach. While the oral-situational approach that concentrated on the importance of learning the target language (TL) through real life situations provided many teaching materials, realia, charts and concrete objects to involve students in real life contexts.

Other approaches like the total physical response provides materials that imitate acquiring L1 such as physical manipulation and actions.

In the recent teaching Approaches that focused on communicative activities like the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) which gave an emphasis on the use of real life objects or texts to enhance learners' learning processes.

Advantages of Using Teaching Aids

Teaching aids are those supplements used in classrooms to enhance the interest of students. According to Bobkina (2012), teaching becomes interesting when a teacher uses various teaching materials. That is, students find ease and help to understand better when these materials meet their interests and needs. Moreover, teaching aids are significant because they develop students' proper images and minds and they create an interesting atmosphere to make learning easy and clear.

Review of Literature

Using teaching materials is considered to be a significant component for the effective teaching of English language. However, to improve learning and the methods used inside classrooms, teachers tend to verify their teaching aids to satisfy learners' needs. Individual differences between learners have been one of the factors that force teachers to jump from one tool to another (Harmer, 2015).

Much research has been conducted on the effectiveness of using teaching aids (Bobkina, 2012; Ashaverl & Igyuve, 2013; Mathew & Alidmat, 2013). Bobkina (2012) conducted a research on the usage of multimedia visual aids in the English language classroom. She evaluated the effectiveness of using multimedia visual aids by adopting triangulation research. Bobkina collected her data from two questionnaires and an observation on 27 students. The outcome of her research showed that teachers did not use visual aids because of timing issues in spite of students tend to enjoy the integration of these authentic materials. In addition, Ashaverl & Igyuve, (2013) wrote a research paper on the role of audio-visual tools in facilitating teaching a language. Their study concerned with teaching some materials like realia, motion pictures, television programmes, etc.

According to Mathew & Alidmat (2013), using audio-visuals in teaching English stimulates thinking and facilitates learning as well as improve learning environment in classrooms. Mathew & Alidmat concluded in their triangulation research that students find interest and ease in their learning when teachers integrate audio-visuals in their teaching.

No study yet has been conducted on how much extent teachers in Misurata use teaching materials. In this study, an emphasis will be on the effectiveness of using teaching aids in classrooms in Misurata.

Objectives of the study

This study presents and discusses the effectiveness of authentic teaching materials in teaching English in Misutata preparatory and secondary schools. The main aim is to evaluate the effectiveness of teaching aids by secondary school teachers in teaching English. In addition, it aims to identify the teachers' perceptions of principles of using teaching aids and to what extent they give support to students.

Significance of the study

Looking at the role of teaching aids in modern teaching methods is fundamental in understanding the extent to which these materials can be beneficial in teaching in general and in TESOL in particular.

Questions of the study

The major purpose of this study is to find an answer for to what degree supportive language teaching materials can be a useful tool in teaching English and to what extent teachers find support for effective teaching and give a hand for students in their learning. The main questions of this paper are:

Do teachers of English use teaching aids and TL in their classrooms?

Do teachers of English in secondary and preparatory schools apply teaching aids and their effective support in their teaching?

Do teachers of English receive any training regarding teaching aids and if these materials are available in their classrooms?

Method

Research Design

This study utilized a quantitative research focused on how much extent supportive language teaching materials can be a useful tool in teaching English. To find out, relevant data were gathered from 40 teachers teaching English in preparatory and secondary schools. A well designed questionnaire of 14 statements has been distributed to answer the questions of the study. The data were analyzed by SPSS version 16 to find out a deeply comprehended data.

Participants and settings

The study emphasized the importance of teaching aids and to what extent EL teachers use supportive teaching aids to develop learners' knowledge and understanding. The sample of the study was randomly chosen. Forty (36 females and 4 males) secondary teachers responded to the questionnaire statements for seeking an answer for the questions of the study.

Research Instrument

Questionnaire

The questionnaire is a research instrument consisting of a series of questions or other types of prompts to collect data from large number of people.

In this study, the questionnaire used to answer the questions of the research is a five point Likert-scale (a five responses- scale that has a numerical value which is be used to measure the attitude under investigation). Respondents have to choose one of the five scales used in the questionnaire; totally agree, partly

agree, neither agree nor disagree, partly disagree and totally disagree. Forty teachers from different preparatory and secondary schools in Misurata responded to the items.

Data Analysis

This paper adopted a descriptive analysis method by using a quantitative research. The data collected by a questionnaire which were analyzed by SPSS Programme version 16. This analysis was processed to find out an answer for the questions of the study. To answer these questions properly, they were divided into three categories. Each category answered one of the questions mentioned earlier. The following division shows the three categories of statements with the question to be answered.

1. Do teachers of English use teaching aids and TL in their classrooms? 1,2,3,4,5 & 6
2. Do teachers of English in secondary schools apply teaching aids and their effective support in their teaching? 7, 8, 9, 10 & 11
3. Do teachers of English receive any trainings regarding teaching aids and if these materials are available in their classrooms? 12, 13 & 14

In this analysis, each category is put in a separate table to show the statistical analysis for all of standard deviation and standard deviation error and the mean of the data.

Results and Discussions

Results from questionnaire

As mentioned earlier, the items of the questionnaire were put in separate tables to show the data clearly. The questionnaire consists of 14 items covering the basic aims of the research. Forty teachers from preparatory and secondary schools responded to the items of the questionnaire, only 4 males and 36 females TESOL.

Table (1)

Do teachers of English use teaching aids and TL in their classrooms?

Item	Totally agree	Partly agree	Neither agree or disagree	Partly disagree	Totally disagree	Mean	Std. Error Dev.	Std. Dev
1	S 7 (17.5%)	8 (20%)	6(15%)	13(32.5%)	6(15%)	3.00	.206	1.301
2	S 0 (0%)	13 (32.5%)	6(15%)	11(27.5%)	10(25%)	3.18	.182	1.152
3	S 2(5%)	4 (10%)	7(17.5%)	20(50%)	7 (17.5%)	3.60	.178	1.128
4	S 26 (65%)	14 (35%)	0(0%)	0(0%)	0(0%)	1.35	.076	.483
5	S 27 (67.5%)	9 (9.5%)	2(5%)	2(5%)	0(0%)	1.48	.129	.816
6	S 10 (25%)	14 (35%)	4(10%)	4(10%)	7(17.5%)	2.62	.228	1.444

The table above shows that teachers do not give much appreciation using TL without using teaching materials. Only 7 (17.5%) totally agree that teaching English using the target language is beneficial. On the other hand, the results show that 26 (76.5%) of the teachers usually use picture slides in their teaching to support their explanation. Moreover, 24 (60%) of the participants totally and partly agree of using videos related to the topic of their lesson to enhance students' communicative skills while only 30 % do not use.

The results also show that some teachers (37.5%) do not use TL in their teaching while others (37.5%) do prefer using it. This indicates that teachers do not consider using TL is a hinder in students' understanding.

Table (2)

Do teachers of English in preparatory and secondary schools apply teaching aids and their effective support in their teaching?

Item	Totally agree	Partly agree	Neither agree or disagree	Partly disagree	Totally disagree	Mean	Std. Error Dev.	Std. Dev
S 7	37 (92.5%)	2 (5%)	0(0%)	1(2.5%)	0(0%)	1.62	.228	1.444
S 8	37 (92.5%)	3 (7.5%)	0(0%)	0(0%)	0(0%)	1.13	.082	.516
S 9	27(67.5%)	12 (30%)	1(2.5%)	0(0%)	0(0%)	1.08	.042	.267
S 10	25 (65%)	12 (30%)	1(2.5%)	1(2.5%)	1(2.5%)	1.32	.083	.526
S 11	10 (25%)	16(40%)	4(10%)	7(17.5%)	3(7.5%)	1.58	.151	.958

Table (2) indicates that a great number of teachers 37 (92.5) give a considerable appreciation to using teaching aids in their classrooms. Furthermore, 37 (92.5%) of the participants totally agree and 3 (7.5%) of teachers partly agree that students understand better when teachers use authentic teaching materials. On the other hand, no one says that they do not consider teaching aids beneficial. Besides, 27 (67.5%) totally agree that use of teaching aid sin the English language classroom increases students' motivation and participation in the class.

Interestingly, 37 (92.5%) of the teachers reported that integrating teaching materials help them regarding timing.

The teaching aids may help teachers in their lesson planning and time management. Despite this, 16 (40%) of the respondents partly agree that using teaching materials takes much time in the class. Whereas, only 7 of teachers

Table (3)

Do teachers of English receive any trainings regarding teaching aids and if these materials are available in their classrooms?

Item	Totally agree	Partly agree	Neither agree or disagree	Partly disagree	Totally disagree	Mean	Std. Error or Dev	Std. Dev
S 12	2 (5%)	5 (12.5%)	9(9.5%)	14(35%)	10(25%)	3.60	.178	1.128
S 13	24 (60%)	12(30%)	1(2.5%)	1 (2.5%)	2(5%)	1.63	.163	1.030
S 14	10(25%)	12 (30%)	2(5%)	6(15%)	10 (25%)	2.85	.256	1.598

Table (3) shows what kind of teaching aids are available and if teachers of language have received any training courses before. Significantly, the majority of teachers (60%) partly and totally disagree that necessary equipment is available in the language classrooms and teachers find difficulty in using multimedia and other sources of authentic materials. Teachers assured that they do not receive any help from the Ministry of Education regarding availability of teaching materials. Moreover, a big number of teachers stated that they consider preparing of extra teaching aids is part of their duties and that they appreciate using extra teaching materials.

Amazingly, a majority of the participants 22 (55%) insisted that they did receive training of how they can use teaching aids and only 16 of the respondents did not receive any training.

One sample t test				
	N	mean	Std. deviation	Std. error deviation
All responses	40	30.75	5.153	.815

Overall, the research considers the test value as 3. The mean of all the responses in the questionnaire was 30.75. The standard deviation which indicates how far the individual response deviates from the other responses of other speakers was 5.153. This gives an indication that there is a high reliability of the responses of the subjects. However, this analysis assures that teachers often tend to give a high appreciation to teaching materials and they engage some teaching aids in their teaching in spite of unavailability and less of training for using them.

Conclusion

Teaching aids are considered to play a highly essential role in encouraging students and motivating them. Teachers have to use these materials to make the class as real life situation. The results of this study give a clear indication that teachers of using authentic materials. That is, teachers often favour using teaching aids in their classrooms.

Findings of the study showed that 77% of English teachers use teaching aids to help their students and enhance their learning. They believe that these

materials motivate their students. Moreover, 92.5% of the teachers often find their students get more benefit when they use such aids.

Recommendation:

Based on the results written in this research, it can be recommended that: teachers of language have to employ different teaching aids in their classrooms such as, pictures, games, songs, videos, etc.

policy makers have to help teachers by providing them with some materials to use them in their classrooms.

Ministry of Education have to improve proper training to in service teachers to employ teaching aids in language teaching.

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Appendix (1)

A Questionnaire on how supportive language teaching materials could be a useful tool in teaching English in Misratah Schools.

Instruction: Please state whether you totally disagree, partly disagree, agree, partly agree or totally agree with the following statements by putting a tick (√) in the appropriate column.

Name (optional):	Gender: F/M
No. of years teaching English:	Stage of education:

statement	Totally agree	Partly agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Partly disagree	Totally disagree
1.I speak only English in class because my students are able to					

understand most of the things I say.					
2.I believe my students appreciate having language classes completely in English.					
3. I think that my students are able to understand the correct meaning of the vocabulary without teaching it in Arabic.					
4. I think that communicative skills should be taught in the classroom together with grammar and vocabulary.					
5. I usually use teaching aids in my lessons to support my explanations and to illustrate the meaning of expressions and words.					
6. I usually use videos related to the topic to enhance the students' communicative skills.					
7. I think that the use of teaching aids in the language classroom is highly beneficial for most of the students.					
8. I consider that the use of teaching aids in the language classroom may help students to focus their attention on the topic					
9. I believe that the use of teaching in the language classroom					

increases students' motivation and participation in the class.					
10 I believe that visual aids are especially effective for lesson planning and lesson timing.					
11 The use of teaching aids in the class requires an amount of time that I do not have.					
12 I have all the necessary equipment in order to use teaching material in the language classroom.					
13 I consider that preparing extra teaching aids for the lesson is a part of the teacher's job.					
14 I have been trained to create my own teaching materials.					

IN English Consonant Clusters
Hawa Mohammed Saleh Es-skare
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ملخص البحث

هدف البحث دراسة الصعوبات في نطق مجموعة الاصوات الساكنة في اللغة الإنجليزية والتي تقع في أول الكلمة أو آخرها مع محاولة تحليل و تصنيف الصعوبات و الأخطاء المحتملة و أسبابها. تم تجميع بيانات الدراسة بتسجيل النطق الشفوي ل(30) طالب من قسم اللغة الانجليزية بكلية الآداب في جامعة مصراتة ل(25) كلمة تم اختيارها لدراسة الأنواع المختلفة من الأصوات الساكنة المجتمعة قيد الدراسة. بالإضافة إلى ذلك، تم إجراء مقابلة مع (10) طلاب لجمع معلومات أوفر عن موضوع الدراسة. وأظهرت النتائج أن الطلاب الليبيين الذين يتعلمون اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية لديهم صعوبات في نطق الأصوات الساكنة المجتمعة. وقد ارتكبوا أخطاء متطابقة وهي إما إدراج صوت متحرك بين الأصوات الساكنة أو حذف صوت ساكن داخل المجموعة. وقد لوحظ أنه بسبب تأثير اللغة الأم واختلاف تركيبات الأصوات بين اللغة العربية والإنجليزية، فإنها قد تنتسب في وجود مثل هذه الأخطاء و الصعوبات. وأخيرا، تم تقديم تقنيات تعليمية و تدريبية واقترحات مختلفة للتغلب على هذه الصعوبات. و الأخطاء في النطق.

Abstract

This study investigates the difficulties of English pronunciation encountered by Libyan college learners when pronouncing English consonants. Basically, it aims at examining pronunciation errors of initial and final English consonant clusters and trying to identifying and analyzing such difficulties and errors might be made by the study participants. The research instruments used for collecting data were document collections and interviews conducting: firstly, recording the actual pronunciation of thirty students of twenty-five words selected to present

different English consonant cluster patterns covered in the study. Secondly, interviews were carried out with ten students to get more and deeper information needed for the study purpose. According to the study findings, the participants have had difficulties to pronounce consonant clusters, they unintentionally committed errors including either inserting a vowel or deleting a consonant sound within the cluster. It has been noted that due to the influence of mother tongue and different structures between Arabic and English, they do break up English consonant clusters. This study provides some pedagogical implications to prevent and cure such English pronunciation problems.

Introduction

In second / foreign language learning/ teaching contexts, the focus is often on the production of accurately grammatical structures of the target language to achieve communication and avoid any misunderstanding. However, the ability to communicate in the target language, in its spoken form, also requires the acquisition of the sounds of L2. Achieving common intelligibility among speakers requires acquiring and receiving the sound system of language correctly. (Jayaraman, 2010). As Morley (1991) emphasizes that communicative competence is achieved by different components; including intelligible pronunciation. (cited in Abubakar Keshavarz 2017). Consequently, the pronunciation problems of EFL/ESL students should not be ignored by their instructors. Equally, EFL/ESL learners should try to be aware of and improve their pronunciation of the target language (Abubakar Keshavarz 2017).

Because of the different sound systems between the learners' mother tongue and L2, learners tend to interfere their mother tongue sound system into L2. Therefore, L2 learners try to produce L2 sounds which exist in their L1. According to Jayaraman (2010), [t]his leads not only to unintelligibility across speakers, but also implies incomplete learning of L2" (, p.2).

Generally speaking, languages vary in that each has its own given sound system and therefore different syllable structures. Learners of another language as a second or foreign language encounter challenges in acquiring fluency in the target language because the different sound systems may reveal. Such challenges and difficulties often related to pronunciation. At this level, consonant clusters are said to represent a foremost source of difficulty. (Adame & Keen cited in Lô,2001).

Be aware of the accurate use of phoneme system of a language and learn to combine the individual phones or sound segments to form phoneme sequences, clusters, syllables and words is of importance to achieve fluent communication in the target language (Jayaraman, 2010; Alenazi, 2016).

The contribution of the study is basically providing insights on how Libyan students, as learners of English as a foreign language, deal with English consonant clusters as an important part of second language phonology. Moreover, its findings might have an essential attempt to help EFL instructors

expect common pronunciation errors produced by their students and how they can reduce any likely drawbacks of teaching implications.

Literature review

English consonant clusters

A consonant cluster is defined as a sequence of two or more consonants occurring together in the same syllable i.e, there is no vowel sound occurs between them. English Learning as a second/foreign language requires leaning several phonological rules concerning consonant clusters. For example, English allows consonant clusters of two, three, up to four. Up to three consonants can begin a syllable. However, in an initial cluster of three consonants, the first element is always /s/ and the second element one of the three voiceless plosives as in, *splendid* /'splendɪd/, *student* /'stju:dn/ and *screen* /skri:n/. Furthermore, up to four consonants can end a syllable as in *texts* /teksts/ (Balasubramanian, 1981; Sethi & Dhamija, 1999; Roach, 2005; Celce-Maria, 2008).

In English, final consonant clusters have more variations than initial ones. This is mainly because /-s/ or /-z/ are added to nouns to make regular plural forms, as in *facts* /fæktz/, *fields* /fi:ldz/; /-t / or /-d / are added to verbs to make regular past tense forms as in *wished*, /wɪʃt/, *paved* /peɪvd/; and the sound /θ/ is also added to form nouns like *strength* /streŋθ/, and *sixth* /sɪksθ/ (Roach, 2005).

According to Roach (2005), English initial two-consonant clusters are of two types .One sort is composed of *s* followed by one of set of consonants. Some examples of such clusters are found in words such as *sting* /stɪŋ/ , *sway* /sweɪ/, *smoke* /sməʊk/. The /s/ in such clusters is called a pre-initial consonant and the other consonants /t, w, m/ are called initial consonants. The other sort begins with one of a set of about fifteen consonants, followed by one of the set of consonant: /l, r, w/. For example, *play* /pleɪ/, *try* /traɪ/, *quick* /kwɪk/, *few* /fju:/. The first consonant of such clusters are initial, and the second the post initial.

Regards Roach's classification (2005), there are two sorts of two consonant final clusters ,one being a final consonant preceded by a pre-final consonant and the other a final consonant followed by a post-final consonant. The pre-final consonants form a small set, including /m, n, ŋ, l, s/ as in *bump* /bʌmp/, *bent* /bent/, *bank* bæŋk, *belt* /belt/, *ask* /a:sk/. The post-final consonants also form a small set: /s, z , t , d, θ/. Some example words are: *bets* /bets/, *beds* /bedz/, *backed* /bækt/, *bagged* /bægd/, *eighth* /eɪtθ/.

Generally speaking, learners of English as a foreign/second language encounter several difficulties in pronunciation of English consonant clusters. Accordingly, there are several studies have been carried out to investigate the acquisition and pronunciation of consonant clusters by EFL/ESL learners.

Review of related studies

Many studies have been conducted on the pronunciation problems of EFL learners. Some of these studies in different teaching contexts are reviewed below.

In Gambia, Lô (2000) found out that the pronunciation of English consonant clusters has come out to be problematic for great majority of Wolof students (a group of people inhabiting mostly in Gambia and Senegal), particularly, when there have been a cluster of three and four consonants. His investigation has borne out three major problems. The first problem is intrusion; adding a vowel sound within a word. For example in the word *problem* /prɒblem/, they intruded the vowel /ɒ/ and then pronounced it as /pɒrɒblem/. The second problem is the reduction of consonants; including dropping of /t/ and /s/. For example, the research findings have indicated that 100% of learners dropped the final /t/ in their pronunciation of the word *against*, so they pronounced it as /əgeɪns/ instead of /əgeɪnst/. Similarly, 100% pronounced /kɒnvens/, /teks/ for the words *convents* and *texts*.

In certain cases, Lô (2000) has noticed instances of assimilation in learners' pronunciation of consonant clusters, as Roach (2005) indicates, "a phoneme realised differently as a result of being near some other phoneme belonging to a neighbouring word for example 'light blue' /laɪt blu: /, 'meat pie' /mi:p paɪ /" (pp.138-139).

Regards to several errors causes, Lô (2000) concluded that students are not aware of the mechanism of English sound production. He added "Lack of correction and failure of teachers to insist on pronunciation is the source or major problems" (p.39). Besides, other errors are just intra-lingual with the interference of learners' mother tongue (Wolof: Niger-Congo language spoken by the Wolof people in Senegal and Gambia) in the English consonant cluster pronunciation.

In other different study conducted in Jordan, Alsaidat (2010) investigated the problems that Jordain Arabian students encountered when they pronounce English consonant clusters. The participants were an upper intermediate level. They speak the Amman dialect of Arabic as their first language. The students were asked to read a list of words and their pronunciation were recorded. Alsaidat 's study has come up with that Jordian Arabic speakers of English tend to break the rule of English consonant clusters and the errors found in this study fall under three types of errors namely insertion , substitution and deletion.

As far as the declusterization process, i.e. breaking the rule of consonant clusters, is concerned, Alsaidat's study focused mainly on insertion type of errors. Therefore, substitution and deletion are not tackled profoundly in the study. It has beenrevealed that the declusterization process was carried out by inserting high front short vowel /ɪ/ to ease pronunciation of English consonant clusters. For example, the /ɪ / was inserted after the first consonant in the pronunciation of English consonant clusters in words such as *scrap* and *strain*; therefore, learners tend to say /sɪkræp/ and /sɪtrem/ respectively. Moreover, the/

ɪ/ was inserted before the final element of clusters of two, three or four. For example *walked* /wɔ:kɪd/, *text* /tɪksɪt/, and *contexts* /kuntɪkstɪs/.

Asaidat (2010) indicated that due to the different phonological rules of Arabic and English consonant clusters, Jordanian Arabic students have difficulties in pronouncing English consonant clusters. In Arabic, for example, no word is allowed to begin with a vowel sound. In other words, no two consonants are allowed to meet at the beginning of a word; without being separated by a vowel. Therefore, it was concluded that the major factor of making pronunciation errors is the interference of learners' mother tongue.

In a more recent study, conducted in Yemen, Na'am (2011) stated that students of the Yemeni University made a variety of errors in producing English consonant clusters. The most serious errors occur in three- and-four final consonant clusters.

These two types are usually nil in Arabic segmental features of phonetics. It is the major cause of interlingual phonological errors made by Yemeni university students in English consonant clusters. Accordingly, they shift to use the common system in their mother tongue to the foreign language, i.e., English. This is common referred to as L1 interference. Another cause beyond making such errors in English consonant clusters is the lack of using teaching aids. The frequent use of various listening aids is very important in improving the students' English pronunciation as a foreign language. Due to the difficulties in English consonant-clusters, students have to listen to recordings more and more to realize and distinguish the nature of English consonant-clusters. In addition, incompetent instructors affect students' pronunciation. Na'am (2011) added that many instructors in Yemeni universities do not pay attention to their own pronunciation and do not make effort to uproot their students' phonological competence in discriminating this aspect of English phonology; consonant cluster pronunciation.

Roach (2005) indicated that "when one plosive is followed by another at the end of a syllable, the second plosive is usually the only one that can be clearly heard, such as *packed* /pækt/, *rigged* /rɪgd/. Moreover, the nature of elision may be stated quite simply where sounds disappear completely in this process. For instance, no native English speakers would ever pronounce all the consonants between the last two words of the following '*George the Sixth's throne*' /dʒɔ:dʒ ðə sɪksəs θrəʊn/ " (pp.142-143). According to Na'am (2011), such serious difficulties may result in the mispronunciation of the Yemeni university students in English consonant clusters.

A similar study was carried out in Persian by Fatimi ,Sobhani and Abolhassani: (2012).They came to the conclusion that there are pronunciation difficulties with consonant clusters faced by Persian learners of English .The participants of this study were EFL learners at intermediate level. They were Persian native speakers whose age ranged between 18-30 years old. Students

participated in a test and read some sentences. The data collected were analyzed according to three phonological processes: Epenthesis, prosthesis and deletion.

Epenthesis occurs when in a certain environment of a word, a segment, either a vowel or consonant, is added. Prosthesis is used to facilitate the pronunciation of an initial consonant cluster by adding a segment at the beginning of a word. Deletion is the last process in which a sound or morpheme, or a word is left out from what is said by the speakers (Richards and Schmidt, 2010). The study showed that the differences between the syllable structure of Persian and English was responsible for pronunciation problems of Iranian learners. Furthermore, it has found that when Persian language learners pronounce some syllables do not exist in their first language structure, they use their first language rules to cope with such difficulties. However, it is emphasized that the study cannot be generalized: researchers simply tried to take an overview of Persian learners' difficulties through investigating a small sample group of a big community.

Problem and scope of study

The primary purpose of the study is to identify the pronunciation errors in English consonant clusters by non-native speakers i.e., Libyan college speakers, learning English as a foreign language. The focus is on errors made in syllable-initial consonant clusters and syllable-final consonant cluster.

Research questions

The following questions are addressed in this study:

1. To what extent do Libyan learners of English have problems with the pronunciation of English consonant clusters?
2. What is the most common errors Libyan learners of English make in the pronunciation of English consonant clusters?
3. To what extent to Arabic consonant clusters interfere into the pronunciation of English consonant clusters by Libyan learners of English?

Methodology

The main objective of this study is to investigate the difficulties that Libyan undergraduates face in the pronunciation of English consonant clusters. Moreover, it aims to explore the reasons of these difficulties. The research methodology which has been employed to accomplish the purpose of the current study is explained below.

Research design

The descriptive method of research was used in this study. It has been adopted to identify the pronunciation errors committed in English consonant clusters.

Participants and setting

The study was conducted at the Faculty of Arts, Misurata University. The participants of this study were thirty (30) female and male students. They have been chosen randomly from different semesters and levels. They have enrolled-on English Department in the faculty. They all speak Arabic as their

mother tongue and study English as a foreign language. Their levels ranged between pre-intermediate and intermediate and their ages ranged between 18-25 years old. For the purpose of the study, the participants were asked to read a list of English words and answer interview questions.

Research instruments

Two research tools have been used to increase the level of reliability of the research findings: recoding students' actual pronunciation of selected words and carrying out an interview with some of the study participants.

Recording students' pronunciation

In this research, recordings were utilized to analyze and evaluate the students' actual production of consonant clusters. The subjects were required to read (25) isolated words. The words were presented orthographically and divided into two groups: initial-consonant clusters and final-consonant clusters. The former one is made up of two and three consonants, and the latter one is made up of two, three, and four consonants. There are five words in each category (See the list of words in appendix A)

Interview

For the current study, (10) students were asked individually (5) direct questions. The interview is a research instrument which has been used to find out students' attitudes and opinions about the-pronunciation difficulties-with English consonant clusters, draw attention to the main causes of these difficulties, and try to expose possible suggested solutions (See the interview questions in appendix B).

Data collection

The data were collected by firstly recording students' oral production. All the participants were asked to read the list of words and tested individually in a quiet place at the Faculty of Arts. The test took approximately one minute for each student. After that ten of the participants were interviewed for gathering more information for the study purpose.

Ethical consideration

The data were conducted anonymously and confidentially and the participants were informed that they have the right to withdraw from participation in the study at any time. While the researchers were collecting the study data, by recording the participants' pronunciation and carrying out the interviews, they informed the participants that such activities and tasks have no effect on their study level, performance or grades.

Data analysis

The participants were interviewed and asked to read aloud the list of selected words. Each student's oral production was recorded to be analyzed for the purpose of study. The recordings were played back several times and the researchers spent approximately ten minutes listening for each student's actual production of words. It was a really time consuming process which including pausing, rewinding, replaying several times to get the accurate data for the study.

The errors were identified as they occurred on the participants' oral production as well as the types of errors for each word. The collected data were arranged in tables, so that it would be easy to figure out the number of students who committed errors and the type of errors in both initial and final consonant clusters. In addition, a bar chart was added to illustrate the total percentages of errors to identify the major different types of errors occurred. The researchers adopted Microsoft Excel 2007 to describe the study statistics and found out the percentage of each error.

Findings and discussion

1. Recording students' pronunciation findings

The pronunciation test was conducted on 30 Libyan university students who were randomly chosen as a representative sample of Libyan university learners of English. A close look at the tables below (*table 1 and 2*), five categories of consonant clusters have been identified and analyzed.

table 1

Error Categories i and ii

Initial consonant Clusters										
made up of two						made up of three				
<i>words</i>	pla y	stay	try	smile	throw	spread	splendid	split	scream	Street
Number of students' errors	3	2	2	1	1	23	20	23	21	18
Number of insertion	3	2	2	1	0	23	20	23	21	18
Number of	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0

Error category i: initial consonant clusters made up of two consonants

It is clear that *table (1)* shows that the majority of participants could pronounce the initial consonant clusters that made up of two correctly. As it is shown in the table, only (3) out of (30) students have difficulties in producing the word *play* correctly. They have pronounced it as /pile/ and /eple/, with inserting the short vowels /i/ and /e/. They tend to generalize the strategy of epenthesis as Celce-Murica (2008) indicates that “where the learner makes an insertion of a vowel within an existing string of segment” (p.164).

Error category ii: initial consonant clusters made up of three consonants

Regards the initial consonant clusters made up of three consonants; it seems that most of students could not pronounce them appropriately; they failed to pronounce them correctly. Table (1) shows that (23) out of (30) students failed to pronounce the word *spread*. They inserted the vowel /i/ after the first consonant as /sɪpred/. For the word *splendid*, (20) students out of thirty (30) could not pronounce it correctly. They made the insertion type of error and pronounced it as /sɪplendəd/.

Generally speaking, it is obvious that the vowel insertion is the major and the most common type of error identified in these categories. However, it has been noticed that there were some cases of substitution for the word *split*. Additionally, it has been found out that the majority of the participants have more difficulties in the pronunciation of initial consonant clusters made up of three than of initial consonant clusters made up of two as the former category is completely absent in Arabic.

Error category iii: final consonant clusters made up of two consonants

As it is shown in *table (2)*, in this category, (15) students out of 30 pronounced the word *songs* incorrectly as /sɒŋɪz/ by inserting the short vowel /ɪ/. They also pronounced the word *things* as /θɪŋɪz/. Moreover, for the word *backed*, (10) students were unable to pronounce it correctly: (3) of them inserted the short vowel /ɪ/ between the two consonants /bækɪd/. They did not recognize that the suffix –ed should be pronounced /t/ if it is preceded by voiceless /k/. The other students (7 students) pronounced it as /bæk/ by deleting the last consonant /d/.

It is obvious that not many students had difficulties in pronouncing final consonant clusters of two consonants because this type of consonant clusters is occur in both English and Arabic.

Error categories iv and v: final consonant clusters made up of three and four consonants

As it is shown in *table (2)*, these categories indicate that final consonant clusters made up of three and four consonants have scored the highest frequency occurrence of mispronunciation. It can be said that these two types are the most

difficult consonant clusters for Libyan university students who were participated in the study.

For instance, (24) students could not pronounce the word *against* correctly as well as the word *glimpsed*. They committed two types of errors. The first one was inserting two short vowels /ɪ/ after the first and second consonants: /əgeɪnɪsɪt/ and /glɪmpɪsɪd/. The second error is dropping the last consonant as in /əgeɪns/ or dropping the second consonant as in *glimpsed* /glɪmsɪd/: they delete the plosive sound /p/.

This process is found to be more prominent in longer final clusters that consist of four consonants. As *table (2)* shows that (27) students out of 30 were unable to pronounce the following words correctly. *prompts*, *twelfths* and *exempts*. For the word *prompts* (20) participants have dropped either the last consonant: /prɒmpt/ or the first one of the consonants: /prɒmɪts/. The other (7) students inserted the short vowel /ɪ/ between four consonants: /prɒmpɪts/, and they followed the same process with the word *exempts*. Furthermore, (17) students committed the inserting type for the word *twelfths*: /twɛlfɪθɪs/ and the other (10) students have dropped the last consonant /s/: /twɛlfɪθ/

Finally, in order to get a good insight into the current study findings, a further display of the results is shown in *Figure 1*.

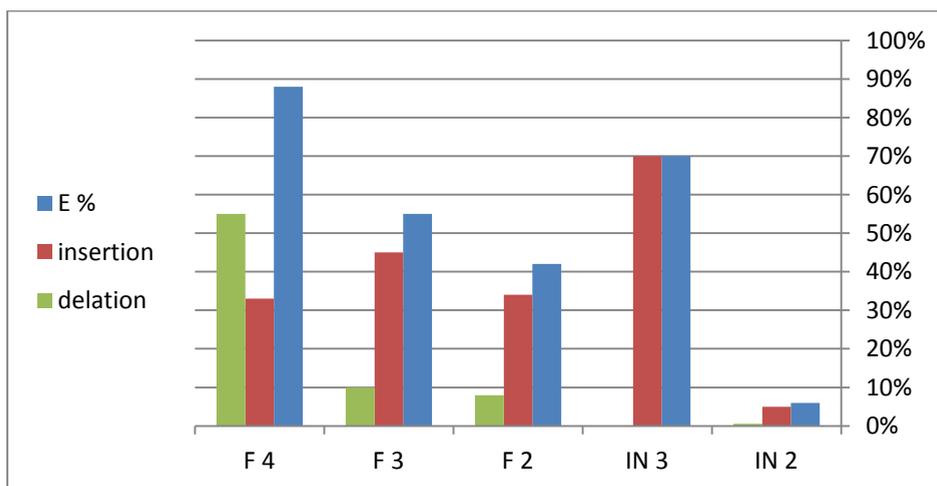


table 2
Error Categories iii, vi and v

	final-consonant clusters														
	made up of two					made up of three					made up of four				
words	songs	things	slipped	backed	bags	next	glimpsed	friends	against	almonds	texts	prompts	twelfths	exempts	sixths
Number of students' errors	15	16	12	10	10	2	26	13	24	18	25	27	27	27	26
number of insertion	15	16	8	3	9	2	23	13	17	13	6	7	17	11	8
number of deletion	0	0	4	7	1	0	3	0	7	5	19	20	10	16	18

The chart above illustrates the total percentage of participant's errors as well as the type of errors. The frequencies of participants' errors differed substantially in area of initial and final consonant clusters.

For the initial consonant clusters, the group that made up of three (IN3) scored the highest frequency occurrence of errors (70 percent) than in the initial consonant clusters (IN2).

Moreover, the number of errors committed in final consonant clusters (F4) made up of four was higher than errors made in final consonant clusters made up of two and three (F2, F3) with percentage of (88).

Furthermore, the insertion type of error was more prominent in the category of final consonant clusters. However, in the final consonant cluster made up of four, the deletion type of error was (55%) which indicates that insertion was lower with percentage of (33).

Generally speaking, the findings of the study indicate that initial clusters were mainly re-syllabified by insertion, while the final clusters were mainly changed by deletion (See script samples of students' actual pronunciation of the selected words in appendix C).

2. Interview findings:

(10) participants of this study were asked to answer five interview questions. The interview was utilized as a research instrument for the purpose of getting samples of students' opinions and perceptions of causes of breaking pronunciation rules of English consonant clusters and what are the suggested ways to cope with the difficulties they might encounter.

Figure1 : the Five Error Categories

IN2= initial consonant cluster made up of two

IN3= initial consonant cluster made up of three

F2= final consonant cluster made up of two

F3= final consonant cluster made up of three

F4= final consonant cluster made up of four

To begin with, the researchers asked the first question (*Do you know English consonant clusters?*) to the 30 participants and continue asking the rest of questions with only the participants who answered with (*yes*).

For the second question: all the students have the same answer that they have difficulties in producing the final consonant clusters more than initial consonant clusters.

The third interview question was about the role of the teachers in correcting student's errors in the class .The majority of students' responses were that the teachers rarely correct student's errors. For the fourth question students gave their opinions about the reasons of breaking the pronunciation rules of English consonant clusters and the followings are the main ones:

1. The interference of mother tongue to facilitate articulating English consonant clusters. In addition, the different structure between Arabic and English consonant clusters can be seen as responsible for mispronouncing English consonant clusters.
2. Lack of practice and teachers usually neglect correcting student's errors.
3. The lack of using teaching aids which are of importance in helping students to improve their phonological competence.

In the final question, students have tried to suggest some ways to overcome the difficulties in the pronunciation of English consonant clusters: learners should practice the pronunciation of English consonant clusters and the teachers are advised to help them by using different techniques such as listening and imitating, phonetic training and minimal pairs drills.

Conclusion and recommendations

Conclusion

In conclusion, the study provides insightful information concerning the difficulties in pronouncing English consonant clusters by Libyan learners of English at Misurata University. In general, the analysis of the difficulties and the causes showed that the contrasting structures between Arabic and English have been responsible for the pronunciation problems of Libya learners. In addition, the study revealed that there have been two types of errors: insertion of vowels and deletion of consonants. Both of these types of error constitute the major types of errors in the pronunciation of English consonant clusters made by university Libya students. The current study might be valuable for both teachers and students. It provides them with a number of suggested techniques to overcome the pronunciation problems.

Recommendations

In the present study, the researchers investigated the error patterns of articulating initial and final consonant clusters by Libyan university students. Thus, the future research can investigate into the articulation of clusters at middle positions, across syllable boundaries and across word boundaries. Besides, the problematic consonants can be identified, and the vowel and stress patterns can also be investigated in upcoming studies.

Considering the fact that this research study has included only(30) participants, further research is recommended to involve a larger number of participants.

Teachers may inform the university students about some of the main areas of contrast between their native language (Arabic) and target language (English) and what difficulties they might encounter; this can help to develop students' pronunciation competence.

Teachers may need focusing on more modern teaching methods. For example, they can provide listening aids during lectures to get their students speak correctly and fluently.

On the other hand, students should not depend totally on their teachers to improve their pronunciation. They can use the techniques of imitation and repetition by listening to recording material of native speakers and then imitating the model. They can also practice by oral reading of minimal pairs, short dialogues to improve their pronunciation.

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Appendix A

A Test Format

Read the following English words:

<i>play</i>	<i>stay</i>	<i>try</i>	<i>smile</i>
<i>throw</i>			
<i>spread</i>	<i>splendid</i>	<i>split</i>	<i>scream</i>
<i>street</i>			
<i>songs</i>	<i>things</i>	<i>slipped</i>	<i>backed</i>
<i>bags</i>			
<i>next</i>	<i>glimpsed</i>	<i>friends</i>	<i>against</i>
<i>almonds</i>			
<i>texts</i>	<i>prompts</i>	<i>twelfths</i>	<i>exemptsixths</i>

Appendix B

Interview Questions

1. Do you know English consonant clusters?
2. Where do you find the most difficult, in onset or coda?
3. In your opinion, why students break the rule of English consonant clusters?
4. Does the teachers correct students' the pronunciation errors in the classroom?
5. What are ways or techniques may follow to overcome this problem?

Appendix C

Script Samples of Students' Actual Pronunciation of the Selected Words:

Sample (1)

/eplei/	/stei/	/traɪ/	/smaɪl/	/əreɪ/
/sɪpred/	/sɪplendɪd/	/sɪplɑɪt/	/sɪkri:m/	/sɪtri:t/
/sɒŋɪz/	/əŋɪz/	/slɪpɪd/	/bækɪd/	/bægɪz/
/nekst/	/glɪmpɪsɪd/	/frend/	/əʒenɪst/	
/ɔlməndɪz/				
/tekst/	/prɒmtɪs/	/twelfeɪs	/ɪgzempɪtɪs/	/sɪksə/

Sample (2)

/pleɪ/	/steɪ/	/etreɪ/	/esmɪl/	/əə/
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/sɪpred/	/sɪplendɪd/	/sɪplart/	/sɪkri:m/	/sɪtri:t/
/sɒŋɪz/	/ɵɪŋɪz/	/slɪpɪd/	/bækɪd/	/bægɪz/
/nekst/	/glɪmsɪd/	/frendɪz/	/əgenɪst/	
/ɔlməndɪz/				
/tekst/	/prɒmpt/	/twelfə/	/ɪgzemts/	/sɪksti:n/

‘The Path Less Taken’: Incorporating Service Learning in the English Language Curricula

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Abstract

Although service learning, as teaching method, is considered important for developing the college students' academic and soft skills, it is still neglected area in the Libyan educational system. This study aims to investigate the trial of implementing service learning in English language course and carried out in the Department of English at Sabratha college of Arts. The findings of this study, based on students’ reflection journals, focus group and open-ended questionnaire, show that service learning enhanced the students’ English language knowledge and skills. Also, students gained soft skills and confidence in using the English language in its context. Finally, the service learning experience promoted the students’ values and self-worth in terms of feeling important and contributing positively to the society.

Key words: service learning, EFL, academic skills, soft skills

I. Introduction

Libya is currently undergoing dramatic transformation. New political, social, and economic realities are emerging and educators are asked to revisit their pedagogies and policies. Consequently, issues such as citizenship and community engagement need to be addressed. Different countries have turned to educational reform when experiencing similar pressure. 'Service learning is one of the fastest growing reforms in higher education and is considered to be essential in developing citizenship for the 21st century' (Al Barwani et al 2013:110).

Nowadays, learning just theoretical knowledge is no longer sufficient. Service learning opportunities allow students to connect with the community, develop values, enhance soft skills such as time management and communication skills which are needed to make positive difference in students' learning experience, Sandaran (2012).

EFL college teachers in Libya try to apply different methods in their classes to enhance their students' English language proficiency. In the Libyan context, service Learning concept could be an effective tool for them, by bringing out a transformative change through using English language to community needs. According to this approach, students are actively engaged in the classroom through pair work, group discussion and thus the interaction, collaboration and cooperation among students develop. Furthermore, service learning is learning as well as giving. students feel more engaged in the learning process when they apply their knowledge and skills to contribute to the society through service learning.

This study aims to heed Seilstad (2014) call for more research in using service learning in the Arab world. It aims to investigate the gains of incorporating service learning in English language courses. Since service learning is a new approach in Libya, and is not well understood by faculty members, thus, a study that investigates the trial of service learning might encourage English language teachers to use service learning method. More importantly, as the country struggles to stability, service learning has been cited as an important and effective avenue.

2. Literature Review

Service-Learning is a way for schools and universities to enhance learning and skill development by taking the student out of the classroom and into the community. Through Service-Learning, teachers can reinforce course principles in a real work setting, and students can gain perspective on their field with positive community service. "Service-Learning is a new educational method that is expanding the involvement of universities in their neighboring communities. It also tends to promote the civic and moral development of students", (Umpleby and Rakicevik, 2008:2). According to Kaye (2004) "Service-Learning is a form of experiential learning where students apply academic knowledge and critical thinking skills to address genuine community needs."

According to Furco and Billig (2002:7-8), a service experience should be personally meaningful and beneficial to the community. In addition, there should be clearly identified learning objectives, student involvement in selecting or designing the service activity, a theoretical base, integration of the service experience with the academic curriculum and opportunities for student reflection. Service learning concept has been introduced in the US universities in which students learn and develop their personal and academic skills through active participation in organized service and more than a third of all American universities and colleges offer courses in service learning, (Student Horizons, Inc., 2008). In a service learning project in New Jersey school, a class was divided into small groups sharing similar interests about social issue like environment. The groups had lessons on online research. Then they were asked to search about the causes and develop lesson plans to deal with them (Rosevear, 2009). In this respect, service learning is a bridge between the classroom and the community. It is also a process, which ensures learning through nonprofit teaching

In Germany, service learning is recently introduced as a teaching method. In one of the secondary schools in Bavaria, students were engaged s in different subjects in activities to preserve its culture. For example, the music class staged a concert to celebrate the 800th birthday of St. Elizabeth. The language class interviewed the citizens of the historic quarter and put together the interviews to create a book (Baltes & Seifert, 2010).

Eyler, *et al.* (2003: 15-19) have summarized the research on service-learning in higher education over the past few years. Among their findings are the following:

- Service-learning has a positive effect on student personal development such as sense of personal efficacy, personal identity, and moral development.
- Service-learning has a positive effect on interpersonal development, the ability to work well with others, and leadership and communication skills.
- Service-learning has a positive effect on sense of social responsibility and citizenship skills.
- Students and faculty report that service-learning has a positive impact on students' academic learning.
- Students and faculty report that service-learning improves students' ability to apply what they have learned in the "real world."
- Service-learning participation has an impact on such academic outcomes as demonstrated complexity of understanding, problem analysis, critical thinking, and cognitive development.
- Faculty using service-learning report satisfaction with quality of student learning. They report commitment to research. They increasingly integrate service-learning into courses.

With regard to TESOL, service-learning fits well with the communicative approach which stressed the student-centered method. The communicative approach focuses on the importance of using the language in real life situations. A number of studies emphasize the implementation of service-learning in the TESOL classroom, including business English for ESL learners (*Crossman & Kite, 2007*), foreign language learning in universities and high schools (*Elwell & Bean, 2001; Gonsalves, 2011; Hellebrandt, 2008*), and international service-learning (*Perren, 2007*).

with regard to research findings in EFL contexts, Rahman (2012), in his investigation of integrating service learning in Bangladesh, mentioned that language learners were influenced positively by their engagement in service learning. Steinke (2007) asserted that EFL learners who get involved in community service have more opportunities to practice the target language. Similarly, Falasca (2017) research findings showed that integrating service learning connects language students to real life challenges in a meaningful way. According to Mathews (2017), the planning regarding the application of service-learning would involve identifying the main challenges and concerns in the society firstly. Then these challenges have to be sorted out placing the most important one in the first place and moving onward to solve it on priority. However, incorporating service learning in the teaching/learning process in the Arab world and mainly in Libya, the context of this study, seems scarce and limited (Seilstad 2014). Therefore, this study aims to fill a gap in the literature by providing insight into service learning implementation in the Libyan college level where English language is taught as foreign language.

3. Methodology

3.1 Participants

The participants of this study are 33 third year English language students at the Department of English, Sabratha College of Arts. 28 females and 5 males. Their age ranges from 20-23 years old. They were selected on voluntary basis.

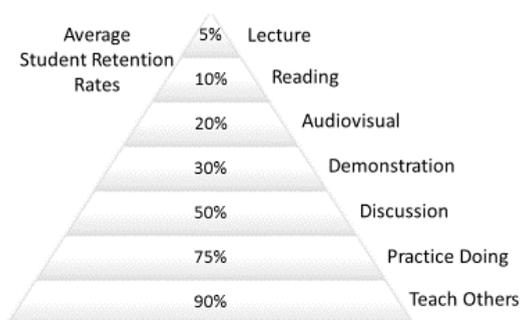
3.2 “yes we can” task: The service learning experience

The main goal of any English as a Foreign Language class is to make the students efficient enough to use English in real life situations. To achieve this goal, educators suggest encouraging the students to experience English language in different situations. So, the students are actively engaged in activity-based process, such as reading comprehension, writing (which includes brainstorming, drafting, summarizing, etc), vocabulary games, grammatical exercises etc.

Considering the writing class, students are also put into group discussion for improving their spoken and written skills. Then, students were introduced to 'yes we can' task (based on Service Learning concept). 'Yes we can' task was introduced to 33 third year English language writing students in Sabratha College of Arts. The students were selected in voluntary basis. Students were divided into three groups. Each group consists of 11 students. The task was the

same for the three groups: deliver English sessions for free to people who are willing to learn English language but cannot afford it.

The aim of these lessons was to motivate the students and provide them with opportunities to use English language in meaningful situations. The lessons had to meet the language needs of the learners. The English language lessons were planned, prepared and delivered by the students who worked in groups of 11. Each group discussed the task, selected the suitable material, designed activities and divided the roles and responsibilities. Students realized that English language has the major role to play in this regard. They started thinking critically on what to teach: thought critically for developing the lesson plan, drafted it, and became conscious about choosing proper examples, before they teach other students. The above-mentioned activities are integral parts of English language learning and teaching. The 3 groups tried their best to improve the free lectures quality and sought the help from their friends and teachers. This activity involved them in creating a learning and teaching community outside the classroom.



The pyramid shows that when students are engaged in teaching others, they learn better than the other form of teaching method, such as: lecturing, reading, group discussion etc. Here, the students found the chance to use their knowledge and skills.

On the day of the activity, the audience were assigned to three groups (10-15 learner in each group), each group to a lesson. Each lesson was delivered and facilitated by the group of 11 students who had prepared the lesson and divided the roles and responsibilities. The lessons lasted about two hours.

3.3 Data collection

This study aimed to investigate the use of service learning in English language teaching. As it was a pilot study, it was decided that a mixed approach would be appropriate for the research design.

3.3.1 research tool

Open ended questionnaire was used to collect data in this study along with observation notes of all the stages of the service learning experience and students' reflection journals at each stage of the task.

The 3 questions in the questionnaire were designed to get feedback from the students about their teaching experience. It was written in a simple and clear way. It was administrated after the students' participation in the lessons. Before the students participated in the questionnaire, they were well informed about the process. To ensure fairness, the participants were instructed not to write their names anywhere in the form.

With regard to reflection journal, all groups were asked to submit a reflection journal in which they explained their choice of learners, material and how would this choice develop the course goals. To write the journal students have to think critically about how their choice will develop the goals of the course. According to Sandaran (2012:383) journals are important tool in integrating all areas of service learning and described them as 'the hyphen in service-learning and viewed as the link that ties student experience in the community to academic learning'.

After making decisions and submitting the journals, I engaged the students in a focus group discussion about their choices and their perception of the service learning experience. According to Reed & Marienau (2008: 70) involving student in active reflection about their views might help them in thinking critically about their choices,

3.4 Data analysis

All data sources were reviewed, coded, and analyzed using the constant method (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), resulting in emergent themes about the gains of service learning experience, the challenges that students faced and the implications of the experience. I triangulated the data (Merriam, 2002) by keeping observation notes about students in different stages of the task along with analyzing students' reflection journals to cross check and verify the emerging themes.

3.5 Research questions:

To investigate the gains of integrating service learning concept in English language courses, this study aims to answer the following research questions:

- a) Could service learning be used as an effective tool to enhance English language learning?
- b) What are the gains of incorporating service learning in the English language curricula?

4. Findings and Discussion

- a) 1. Could service learning be used as an effective tool to enhance English language learning?

Integrating service learning was really beneficial to the students who participated in this study and to the English language Department alike. Interestingly, it has been noted through the questionnaire and observations of students' work that students got the scope to use their language skills in the real-life situations through providing their service and at the same time reflecting a positive change in the community. Above all, they could realize their potentiality through gaining self-confidence. In addition, students have shown increased motivation to attend lectures. This finding is in consonance with Wolff & Tinney (2006) findings which showed that students who were involved in service learning experience had more academic participation and more interaction with faculty members.

This task was good opportunity for the students to interact with students from other departments. Most importantly, this service learning experience afforded them a practical opportunity to apply the theories of language learning and teaching in preparing and delivering the lessons.

Benefits to the Department of English

According to Simonet (2008) providing service learning experiences that involve students, faculty members and staff helps to build a great network of student support.

Encouraging English language undergraduate students in service-learning experience in the current study has the following benefits:

- By engaging the students, the Department of English language had the opportunity to expand its mission in serving the society.
- Such experiences might increase the public support to the department and encourage its collaboration with civic society organizations.
- Providing service learning in the department can encourage the students to enhance their life skills, and share their ideas and projects.

B) What are the gains of integrating service learning in the English language curricula?

Students who participated in this study offered a range of reasons why they thought the experience of teaching was offering them a very positive experience. The extracts are used as written in students' reflection journals and answers of the questionnaire except the students' names have been hidden and numbers are used instead. The most common were:

1. academic outcomes

According to the students' answers of the first question about what was good about their participation in the experience of teaching English language to other non-specialized students, the preparation stage was very beneficial. They specifically mentioned the readings to choose the appropriate examples and texts and the selection of activities used. 80% of the students mentioned that practicing the lessons and activities before the service learning session improved

their language skills and their self-confidence. S14 mentioned *'preparing the lesson and practicing how to teach it before the actual teaching take place was very useful. I was more confident in delivering my part and the content was familiar to me'*.

Also, one of the mentioned advantages was this experience encouraged students to engage with the material covered in the course. They were encouraged to think about the material in an active way rather than just being receptive. For example, S 12 wrote: *'this task helped me not just to understand the information but to be critical about the material'*.

It also required them to draw upon their own experience as EFL student as well as improving their academic writing skills. Besides planning and designing the lessons, the students had to write advertisement about their lessons, write report about the task, the steps that they have followed, the goals of the lesson and the material used.

This finding is in consonance with Albrwani (2014:105) findings in which she mentioned that in investigating the impact of service learning on Omani students, service learning provided EFL students *'with more opportunities to improve their language in writing and grammatical structure as well as reading comprehension'*.

Observing the time tables that students made to finish the task gave me the feeling that the groups are ready and know what to do. Overall, the actual teaching sessions emphasized to the students how crucial the planning and preparation stage is to success. S23 wrote *'it was smooth process. We knew what to do, when to do it and how'*.

2. Personal outcomes

60% students emphasized specific skills which were improved as a result of the service learning experience. The students developed useful soft skills from working in groups such as learning to express their ideas, to accept criticism. In the end, they had to agree unanimously on a topic to teach and therefore had to engage in a discussion to deal with all the issues related to their lesson. Students also showed better group work and cooperation in the classroom. They mainly mentioned that their participation enhanced their communications skills such as how to ask the right question and to ask for help.

70% of the students mentioned that the service learning experience improved their self-confidence. After the experience of teaching *'real learners'* rather than explaining to their classmates, they felt more confident in their competence. S22 said, *"I can teach different groups of learners. I feel that I can"*.

The teaching experience helped the students to overcome their apprehensiveness about learning English and making mistakes. When they participated in the lesson, it could be observed that they became less conscious about using English as they were immersed in the lessons and activities and having fun. The teaching experience seemed to have benefited not only the learners, but also the English language students who had learned a lot on their own from designing and

facilitating the language lessons. Their own excitement about the task and enthusiasm in working with the learners was contagious. Two of the groups delivered the lesson even in the evening to primary school pupils in their neighborhood. The comments from the learners were positive and they asked for more free lessons. according to Simonet (2008) service learning improves students' attitudes and motivation because it creates meaningful learning environment. Similarly, Minor (2006) stated that service learning enhances the students' skills such as problem solving, interacting with others and achieving goals.

One student identified "encouragement" as being particularly important for the learners who were engaging in activities that were new to them. student wrote, "*it was good to notice that even the shy students completed some of the activities with encouragement*".

3. students' values and self-worth

50% of students who participated in this study stated that they learnt from their experiences with service-learning how to be more responsible and caring toward others. The task of teaching for free required students to take responsibility of their learning. student 1 said: *'I think the task increased the responsibility of the students. it also increased the ability to face challenges. We learned how to make brave choices'*. Additionally, S5: *"taking part in this task did not only improve my writing ability. It also showed me how to be helpful and caring about others"*. 40% students reported a realization of self -worth. They felt that they can contribute to the society by using their knowledge and skills. S19 stated *'I am grateful to this experience because it made me feel important'*. S6 added *'they always blame our generation and describe us as careless and spoilt. This experience helped us to say that we are responsible and we can be good citizens and help others. We need just a chance'*.

Furthermore, the students also were happy and proud as their work was recognized and celebrated in the presentations day which was well attended from the university administration, faculty members, civil society and local media. S 32 *'It was really amazing experience because we interacted with other students and they liked our way of explaining'*.

In addition to reading and preparing lesson plans of the learners' needs, the service learning experience provided the students with a personal experience and a valuable value for the students to know themselves better. The participants of this study mentioned that the teaching experience helped them to have a sense of possession of their learning. This helped the students to be more aware of how they learn and what they learn.

Some students indicated in their reflection journal that this experience changed their idea about the teaching profession S5 said *'teaching is not just delivering information. You have to prepare, select appropriate material, prepare lesson plan, check the pronunciation. I did not know that it is really hard job'*. S3

added' *after this experience, I felt that I love to be a teacher. There is nothing like the moment when the learners smile and got it*'.

From the students' views in their reflection journals and the discussion in the focus group, they asserted that service learning has a tremendously positive impact

on their learning, compared with the traditional classroom teaching. Students asked for more opportunity to engage in service-learning rather than just having lectures, tests and focus on grades. Underlying such a call for service-learning is a significant shift from a traditional and teacher-centered teaching method to one that is student-centered and autonomous. This robust service-learning experience could address students' need for an education that prepares them for their careers and for dealing with the challenges that the Libyan community face.

4. The challenges of incorporating service learning experience

In answering the question about the challenges that they faced in their service learning experience, most students who participated in this study complained about the limited time which was assigned for the task. Students had other subjects to study, assignments to submit and their schedule was extremely busy. This is common challenge in the literature. "they are too busy to fit community-based learning into their crowded schedules" (Holland & Robinson, 2008:20). In addition, some students expressed their interest to work more on the task but they thought that might affect their grade in other subjects.

In a follow up question about what should be done to deal with limited time issue, the students asked for time management training. Also, they wanted the department to fund and support their work and integrate service learning in the course assignments and evaluation.

Another challenge that students mentioned was the lack of confidence at the beginning of the task. Most students mentioned that at the beginning they found the idea of having to teach very frightening. They did not have previous experience and many were unsure about what to say. However, most of them developed their own way of doing it successfully.

In my part as teacher and researcher, it was time consuming to prepare the task, communicate with the college administration and prepare the logistics, guide the three groups and give them feedback about their lesson plans and selection of materials. Also, integrating service learning with the academic goals of the writing course was not easy due to students' level and lack of experience in such tasks. From the students' writing, it was clear that some students need more scaffolding for the type of writing required in reflective journals. Their writing was too brief and simple. They did not connect the service learning task with their own learning. Therefore, I found that showing them samples of writing that integrate academic writing goals with service learning is beneficial.

Discussion

This study investigated the trial of integrating service learning in the Libyan EFL context. The data analysis showed three themes. First, service learning enhances

the English language knowledge and skills. Second, students gained soft skills and confidence in using the language in its context. Third, the service learning experience promoted the students' values and self-worth in terms of feeling important and contributing positively to the society.

These three themes support the literature related to using service learning. As English language teacher, I believe that service-learning experiences are among the most valuable to our students. I recognize the potential for meeting student outcomes related to academic and soft skills development and improved overall performance in their writing.

Students' views about their experience were resoundingly positive. As the literature suggests, service learning improved students' understanding of classroom materials.

Students had a much clearer perspective on the lesson plan and delivering the material. Students' self-confidence was also greatly enhanced, as also suggested by the literature. According to Eyler, *et al.*, (2003:15-19), service-learning has a positive influence on students' interpersonal development such as the ability to work with others as well as personal development such as sense of personal efficacy, personal identity.

Consequently, this service learning opportunity taught students to be good citizens. Their ideas about teaching and assessment were challenged and changed. Students felt empowered by their involvement and voiced the interest to participate in similar experiences in the future. In addition, the students were able to transfer their language knowledge to real life situations. Bechet, *etal* (2012:77) stated that 'service learning experiences are an additional source of data that deepens the understanding of academic courses'.

In addition, for many students the service learning experience influenced their career choice. According to Rahman (2012) service Learning projects should be incorporated to language courses in a way that it guarantees the benefit to the community and students get the real benefit out of it through improving their language skills and enhancing their self-confidence.

5. Conclusion, Implications and Recommendations

The findings of this study show that students can develop their academic skills and soft skills by practicing them in their real-life situations. Service learning concept should be incorporated to English language courses in a sense that it ensures the benefit to the community largely and students get the real benefit out of it through developing their language proficiency and gaining self-confidence. The feedback from the students provides adequate evidence for the positive impact of service learning tasks. As a pilot project, there are some aspects that need fine-tuning and rethinking. For example, since this was a one-week event of English language free lessons, time was a constraining factor as students have prepared and delivered the lessons in a very limited time because they have other lectures to attend and assignments to submit. Also, in the college writing courses,

the one-week time frame limited the extent of the discussion and preparation because the focus was on making connections between practical service learning task and the academic goals of academic writing course.

The participants in this study asked for opportunities for meaningful service-learning experiences. To create such opportunities, changes in the educational curricula and the teaching methods are needed.

Based on the findings of this study, I can suggest the following:

This pilot study could be a model for other colleges in Libya and the Arab world due to the high need for support of educational reform at all levels. Beyond this specific context, English programs worldwide and even in other subject areas may find the task practical and effective for their purposes. Not only English language teachers but also educators across different discipline should strive to use it as a teaching tool to practice and promote learning.

To employ service learning successfully, English language teachers need to have good understanding of its underpinning philosophy. Thus, in service training courses should be provided for the teachers mainly in the Libyan context where service learning is still new method of teaching and not yet familiar for most university teachers.

To encourage college students to participate in service learning activities, it is necessary for the college administration to provide support in the form of help with logistics, planning and communication with local partners such as the civic society.

Future Research

Reflecting on this pilot study, more research is needed around how students recognize and experience their involvement in service learning. For instance, the results of this study raise a number of questions that demand attention such as how does service learning affect students' English language proficiency? How incorporating service learning might be influence by the specialization and context?

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Qur'an Translation: Reality and Textual Challenges
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Abstract

The translation of the Qur'an has been a controversial issue among Muslim theologians. They claim that translation of the Qur'an does not represent the Qur'an as a text. They also argue that because of the genre of the Qur'an is the genre of inimitability (*i'jaaz*), thus, translatability can never be possible. This research paper presents a comparative-contrastive practice based analysis of the Qur'anic text in terms of translation problems. We shall argue that due to the fact that Arabic and English are linguistically and culturally incongruous, some Qur'an specific syntactic and stylistic patterns, expressions and theological notions are limits of translatability of Qur'anic genre.

1. Introduction

Translation is a linguistic phenomenon which is mainly concerned with applied semantics. This paper demonstrates a comparative-contrastive practice-based analysis of the Qur'anic text in terms of translation problems. To accomplish this work, a number of Qur'an translations will be investigated to find out the appropriateness and accuracy of each translation. Therefore, this study will concentrate on the semantic study of some of the Qur'anic verses. Furthermore, the paper will also deal with the problem of translating Qur'anic discourse

represented by different verses. In other words, the current study will provide a contrastive and comparative critical translation assessment of the translation Qur'anic verses based on different Qur'an translations. We shall argue that due to the fact that Arabic and English are linguistically and culturally incongruous, some Qur'an-specific syntactic and stylistic patterns, expressions, and theological notions are difficult to be transferred into English. Thus, in this research paper, we will discuss, for instance, how the notion of equivalence in Qur'an translation is not achieved. This study will also provide major problems encountered in the Qur'an and which constitute a translation problem. This research is a practical critical analysis of several interesting examples taken from the holy Qur'an. It is also worthwhile to note that the discourse features found in the Qur'anic text are also related to the notion of inimitability of Qur'anic discourse.

2. Qur'an Translation: Reality and Textual Challenges

The translation of the Qur'an has been a controversial problem among Muslim scholars. Despite the fact that the Qur'an, or parts of it, has been translated into a good number of languages, Muslim scholars argue that a translation of the Qur'an does not represent the Qur'an as a text and cannot be a Latin Qur'an. This point of view, is justified in the light of the fact that "the sophisticated nature of Qur'anic discourse as a special and sensitive genre and with its prototypical linguistic and rhetorical characteristics have made the fundamental concept of equivalence in Qur'an translation obviously unachievable in most essential parts of Qur'anic discourse" (Abdul-Raof 2001:xiii). He (ibid: xiv) continues to argue that the "notion of equivalence is difficult to realise in Qur'anic discourse; therefore, extreme injustice has been done to the source text of the Qur'an, the word of God. Also, texture which is the most significant feature of Qur'anic discourse as it is a Qur'anic –specific characteristic, makes the translation of the Qur'an a demanding task which indeed places limitations on source text translatability and as a result, it is unlikely that equivalence can simply be realised." Similarly, Jaber (2010:943) claims that Muslim scholars argue that because of the genre of the Qur'an is the genre of *i'jaz*, thus, translatability can never be possible. Equivalence, therefore, cannot be achieved. Robinson (1996:4-10) also claims that "none of the translations of the Qur'an is entirely satisfactory. The Qur'an has a rhythmic symmetry which is largely lost in translation." He (ibid) continues to claim that those by Yusuf Ali and Marmaduke Pickthall are the most popular with Muslims. The former is the more accurate of the two, but both are generally reliable. Maududi (1974:2-5), argues that "literal translation of the Qur'an often becomes a hindrance to the full understanding of the Qur'an; this is due to the fact that Qur'an translation suffers from many drawbacks and is incapable of transferring the linguistic charm and sublime theme of the original Arabic text into any other language.

There is still another handicap in the literal translation of the Qur'an; an English word is not always the exact equivalent of an Arabic word; it is, therefore, difficult to transfer accurately into English every shade of meaning that is contained in the Arabic word of the Qur'an. A free translation, however, can convey in English the meaning of an Arabic sentence as a whole". Saeed (2008:120-139) points out that "Muslims do not consider a translation of the Qur'an to be equivalent to the Qur'an itself; rather, they refer to it as a 'translation of the meanings of the Qur'an'. He (ibid) justifies his argument by reasons that include "the impossibility of replicating the Qur'an's original style, the richness of Arabic language, the existence of certain untranslatable terms, and the fact that a translation can never be completely exact or neutral". Translation has never been unproblematic, especially when dealing with the words of God. There are many Muslim scholars who think that accurate translations of the Qur'an from the original Arabic are unattainable, and, furthermore, see translations into other languages as only useful interpretations. Maqsood (2003:35) also claims that any translations of the Qur'an into other languages are regarded as being quite different from the Qur'an itself. Furthermore, Pickthall (1970: I) goes to the extreme and claims that "the Qur'an cannot be translated". He (ibid), adds that "the Qur'an, that inimitable symphony, the very sounds of which move men to tears and ecstasy is only an attempt to present the meaning of the Qur'an and possibly something of the charm in English. It can never take the place of the Qur'an in Arabic, nor is it meant to do so". In a similar vein Rahman (1979:40-41), argues that mainstream Muslim scholars are completely against any attempts of translating the Qur'an into other languages without the Arabic text. He (ibid) adds that because of the Qur'an's artistic beauty and grandeur, it is, therefore, impossible for the translator to keep such rhetorical features in the process of translation. Similarly, al-Hayek (1998: xxv) states that the Qur'an cannot be translated precisely to any other language; this is due to the fact that there are many Arabic words and expressions that have no equal meanings in other languages; however, they are usually given some shades of meanings; for example, there are no exact equivalent to these five Arabic words: '*Rabb*', '*Rahman*', '*Rahim*', '*Samd*' and Allah in English.

Likewise, Eliasi (1992: v), asserts that the Qur'an cannot be translated and the result of any translation is not the Glorious Qur'an. He (ibid) continues arguing that Qur'an translations often fail to convey the real sense, spirit and delicacy of the original text. For instance, some English terms in the opinion of (Eliasi: ibid; al-Hayek 1998: xxv) are more or less inadequate to express the basic concepts of the Qur'an, such as '*Rabb*', '*al-Rahman*', '*Ahad*' and '*Samd*'. We believe this

is due to the rhetorical and linguistic features of the Qur'anic discourse that are difficult to capture in the target text.

One should note that despite the fact that there have been many attempts to translate the Qur'an into different languages, unfortunately, all these translations failed to equate the Qur'an with its original Arabic stylistic, grammatical patterns which are semantically oriented and have communicative, i.e., pragmatic functions. We do not want to be misunderstood here. We mean that Qur'anic discourse is marked by syntactic and stylistic techniques well-suited for Qur'anic presentation of theological notions, and most importantly these techniques are pregnant with pragmatic, i.e., communicative functions. Accordingly, to transfer such unique patterns to another language will make the target text (TT) void of any discourse functions. Thus, the intended message of the source text (ST) producer is undermined and lost at times. Consequently, from my viewpoint, the translation of the Qur'an is, indeed, the translation of its meanings which is fine in order to achieve cross cultural communication with other nations. Similarly, "The words of God can never be translated literally; therefore, it is incorrect to use the term 'translation of the Qur'an.' What is rendered into other languages can be no more than a brief *tafsir*, i.e., explanation of the meanings" (Sahih International 1997: 1). Because of the sublimity of the Qur'anic text, an authentic translation of it into another language is basically unattainable. The various translations that are present nowadays however precise they possibly are cannot be designated as the Qur'an, since they can never hope to imitate the diction or the style of the divine Book. Many private attempts have been made in order to translate the Qur'an, yet, these works have been to a great extent influenced by the translators' own prejudices and failed to produce a consistent translation that is free from personal bias (Muṣḥaf al-Madīna al-Nabawīyyah 1985: v-vi).

Mir (1989:10), however, objects to the quality of Qur'an translations and calls them as 'poor'. He (ibid) argues that it is an old criticism that the translation of the Qur'an is different from the original Qur'anic text. It is sensible to anticipate that an appropriate English translation of the Qur'an, one that is both accurate and comprehensible, can be produced. For such a translation to come into existence is hardly achieved.

The combinations of grammatical, semantic, rhetorical, phonetic and cultural features are not only distinct from the TL but also "distinct from other types of Arabic prose" (ibid: 3). On the syntactic level, there are features employed for semantic requirements and communicative goals. For example, among the linguistic features that are Qur'an-specific is the frequent use of (*al-iltifat*) shift in personal pronouns from third person to second person and then back to first person in the same verse. This "linguistic mechanism" (ibid: 4) that is quite common in the Qur'anic discourse, cannot even be paraphrased (ibid: 7). He further adds that "Qur'anic lexemes and style are not captured in most of the English versions of Qur'an translations" (ibid: 1). Ghazala (2004:1), while

focusing on the problems that a translator may encounter in translation, has acknowledged that “Qur’anic expressions create a tremendous challenge to translators who often fail to capture the characteristics and cultural features of Qur’anic discourse” (ibid: 26).

Likewise, Abdul-Raof (2007:1-12) argues that “the liturgical, emotive and cultural associations of expressions found in the Qur’an, pose the greatest obstacle to the translator”. Moreover, he adds that “stylistic variation is one of the intriguing linguistic problems of Qur’anic discourse”. On the lexical level only, stylistic variation is directly influenced by context. Abdul-Raof (ibid) adds that each lexical item has a set of fundamental semantic features that condition their selectional restrictions within a given stylistic pattern. These patterns do not randomly occur, but, relay a pragmatic message to the reader/listener. As a Qur’ani-specific stylistic technique, we encounter some lexical items that have violated the selectional restriction rule, as in: (فَبَشِّرْهُمْ بِعَذَابٍ أَلِيمٍ) *fabashirhum bi’adhābin ‘alīmin*-so give them tidings of a painful punishment. Q84:24) where in this statement, the verb (بَشَرَ-*bashar*) which signifies positive news, has collocated with the noun phrase “*adhābin ‘alīmin*” that signifies negative news. Stylistically, however, the verb (بَشَرَ-*bashar*) has violated the selectional restriction rule in order to achieve the rhetorical purpose of sarcasm and irony (Dweik and abu-Shakra 2011:11-12).

Phillips (1997:55-57) is influenced by the notion of inimitability of Qur’anic discourse. He asserts that the Qur’an is “more than the sum total of its words, grammatical constructions, figures of speech, rhythms, and rhymes. It is a message, a direct communication between God and man, and it is a permanent inimitable literary miracle. Neither the Arabs of the past nor the present were able to meet the open challenge concisely expressed in the *ayah*:

(وَإِنْ كُنْتُمْ فِي رَيْبٍ مِّمَّا نَزَّلْنَا عَلَىٰ عَبْدِنَا فَأْتُوا بِسُورَةٍ مِّثْلِهِ وَادْعُوا شُهَدَاءَكُمْ مِّنْ دُونِ اللَّهِ
إِنْ كُنْتُمْ صَادِقِينَ)

(And if you are in doubt about what We have sent down upon Our Servant Muhammad, then produce a *sūrah* the like thereof and call upon your witnesses other than Allah, if you should be truthful. Q2:23)

and the *ayah*:

(أَمْ يَقُولُونَ افْتَرَاهُ قُلْ فَأْتُوا بِسُورَةٍ مِّثْلِهِ وَادْعُوا مَنِ اسْتِطَعْتُمْ مِّنْ دُونِ اللَّهِ إِنْ كُنْتُمْ صَادِقِينَ)

(Or do they say about the Prophet, “He invented it?” Say, then bring forth a *sūrah* like it and call upon (for assistance) whomever you can besides God, if you should be truthful. Q10:38)

Owing to the fact that Qur'anic grammatical, stylistic, and phonological constructions, and Qur'an's rich figures of speech, rhyme, and rhythm cannot be expressed accurately in any other language other than Qur'anic Arabic, we believe that any Qur'an translation will suffer, at the communicative and pragmatic levels, loss of the built-in intended meaning. This can make one believe in Pickthall's claim (1971: vii) that the Qur'an is like a symphony and that "the inimitable symphony, the very sounds of which move men to tears and ecstasy" exists only in the Arabic. Any degree of success will only dupe readers into thinking that they are experiencing the Qur'an, whereas in reality, they are experiencing the feelings of the translator and his literary skills. Even claims to translations of the Qur'an's meanings are false because the author of such translations chooses meanings which he feels are appropriate in the case of Arabic words which have more than one meaning and words which have non-Arabic equivalent. Pickthall (ibid) also chooses between literal and figurative meanings and translates the one which he considers appropriate.

It is worth mentioning to state that we are not against the existence of the Qur'an translations, we are of the opinion that these translations are of significant value to non-Arab readers.

3. Equivalence in Translation

The notion of equivalence is basically hinged on whether the TT can generate an equivalent response on its readers 'equivalent' to the response the ST generated on its readers and whether the translator can produce a TT with an equivalent effect to that of the ST. The notion of equivalence has been an essential but controversial issue in translation studies. It can be defined as identicalness or interchangeability in value, quality, and communicative significance between two texts. The optimal objective of any translation process is to achieve equivalence at the various textual levels such as lexis, structure, rhetoric, style, and pragmatic function. In other words, equivalence implies that the textual requirements need to be satisfied at all levels. This, we believe, is an ambitious goal. We remain sceptical about this notion and believe that equivalence remains an obscure notion in nature. However, we are not of the opinion that equivalence is the preservation of stylistic and linguistic features of the original because this is a recipe for a poor literal translation.

Bassnett (1980:29) is of the opinion that equivalence cannot be defined in terms of sameness, and that equivalence in translation should not be approached as a search for sameness, since sameness cannot even exist between two TL versions of the same text, let alone between the SL and the TL versions. Likewise, other linguists like Crystal are also sceptical of whether equivalence is achievable. Similarly, Malmkjæ (2011:109) argues that it is "never possible to establish

sameness of meaning between a text and its translation; and there can never be sameness of meaning between a text and its translation”.

She also (ibid:95) asserts that scholars like Catford, Anton Popovic, Jiri Levy, and many others, point out that not all linguistic items have their counterparts in other languages by any means. Although Crystal (1997:346-347) holds the view that “the aim of translation is to provide semantic equivalence between source and target language”, he is not sure whether the translator can achieve equivalence; thus, for him (ibid), it is impossible for a translator to provide a translation that can be a perfect parallel to the source text in terms of puns, rhythm and cultural allusions.

4. Applied Translation Studies

We have chosen Surat al-Mā’ida, Q5, the fifth chapter of the Qur’an, as our case study of this research, we have encountered a number of grammatical, semantic and rhetorical Qur’an-specific features that we believe constitute translation problems into English. Thus, we believe that total equivalence in Qur’an translation is sometimes impossible or difficult to achieve. The translation of Q5 remains only an approximation.

In the following textual analysis, we shall explicate each example and elucidate whether the meaning and its pragmatic or communicative function is delivered. Therefore, this analysis represents a comparative and contrastive account of different Qur’an translations. It is worthwhile to note that the expression ‘translation problem’ which we utilize here, does not mean a problem that cannot be translated, i.e., untranslatability of Qur’anic discourse. It rather means that we may have different translations due to Qur’anic -specific discourse, different exegetical views, or different modes of reading on which the Qur’anic translator has adopted. This may also lead to different theological differences. The various examples can also lead us to diagnose the translation loss. The applied translation is based on al-Hilali and Muhsin Khan (1996), Yusuf Ali (1999), Pickthall (1970), Sahih International (1997), Ghali (1996), Shakir (1999), Arberry (1980), Abdel Haleem (1985), Asad (1980), Mir (1989) and al-Hayek (1998) translations of the meanings of the Qur’an.

A review of accessible English translations of the Qur’an illustrates that the most a translator aims at, is the communication of the message without considering the magnificent features of the Qur’anic discourse. The Qur’an is attractively constructed and strongly rhetorically-based in comparison with Arabic ordinary prose. The adaptability of Qur’anic lexemes and styles which are semantically oriented are not captured in most of the following English Qur’an translations. This part of the research will therefore, put emphasis on the challenges that Qur’an translators encounter at the lexical, structural/stylistic and rhetorical levels.

Anis (1976:168-186) argues that many scholars have indicated that rhetorical devices are considered as a key issue in the translation process and they are very

difficult to keep in the target text. As for Abu Sa'ied al-Serafi (d.368/978), a renowned Arab grammarian of the 4th century, he claims that languages are not compatible with each other; i.e. every language has its own characteristics. In other words, they are completely different from each other in terms of grammar, phonology, morphology, phonetics and rhetoric.¹ Hence, one can argue that problems of translation have been a debatable issue among classical and modern scholars. For instance, al-Jurjani (d.471/1078), has, in detail, discussed this subject in his well-known book; *Asrar al-Balaghah*. Because of the limited space in this research paper, we will, put emphasis on the challenges that Qur'an translators encounter at the structural level only.

5. Grammatical Problems

Q5 demonstrates a number of grammatical features which can be a translation problem. These are:

5.1 Verbal sentences versus nominal sentences: Verbal sentences are Arabic specific and are realised by a verb at the beginning of a sentence followed by an agent, a phrase or an object, whereas a nominal English sentence is recognised by a noun or a pronoun at the beginning followed by a verb, nominal Arabic sentences start with a noun or a pronoun followed by a predicate that could be a verb + a phrase, a phrase or a noun or an adjective, a verb + an object, as in:

Example 1

(وَعَدَ اللَّهُ الَّذِينَ آمَنُوا وَعَمِلُوا الصَّالِحَاتِ لَهُمْ مَغْفِرَةٌ وَأَجْرٌ عَظِيمٌ)

(Allah has promised those who believe (in the Oneness of Allah-Islamic Monotheism) and do deeds of righteousness, that for them there is forgiveness and a great reward (i.e. Paradise. Q5:9) (al-Hilali and Khan)

(To those who believe and do deeds of righteousness has Allah promised forgiveness and a great reward. Q5:9) (Yusuf Ali)

(Allah has promised those who believe and do good works: Theirs will be forgiveness and immense reward. Q5:9) (Pickthall)

(Allah has promised those who believe and do righteous deeds (that) for them there is forgiveness and a great reward. Q5:9) (Sahih International)

We can see that the three translations of the above mentioned *ayah* by al-Hilali and Khan, Pickthall and Sahih International are almost similar as they focus on the word promise; however, Yusuf Ali's focal point is the believers and their good deeds, and for this reason he foregrounded this part of the sentence and gave it prominence. Thus, we can argue that their translation is grammatically and semantically different from each other; besides, the three of them have employed nominal sentences whereas Yusuf Ali has started with a foregrounded prepositional phrase. The major issue here is why the Qur'anic statement has started with a verb *wa'ada* rather than the subject noun *allahu wa'ada*. The

¹ Abu Hayan al-Tawhidi (n.d:59) *al-Muqabassat*.

answer to this lies in the pragmatic function of the verb which is to achieve the semantic componential feature of continuity and progression *al-huduth wal-tajaddud* that is embodied by the verb that occurs sentence-initially (Abdul-Raof 2006:11-12).

Example 2

(يَهْدِي بِهِ اللَّهُ مَنِ اتَّبَعَ رِضْوَانَهُ سُبُلَ السَّلَامِ)

(Wherewith Allah guides all those who seek His Good Pleasure to ways of peace. Q5:16) (al-Hilali and Khan)

(Wherewith Allah guideth all who seek His good pleasure to ways of peace. Q5:16) (Yusuf Ali)

(Whereby Allah guideth him who seeketh His good pleasure unto paths of peace. Q5:16) (Pickthall)

(By which Allah guides those who pursue His pleasure to the ways of peace. Q5:16) (Sahih International)

where the *ayah* starts with a verb; however, in the English translations, the initial verb phrase has totally been changed either into an adverbial or a prepositional phrase. Therefore, the major issue here is yet again why the Qur’anic statement has started with a verb *yahdī bihi* rather than the subject noun *allahu yahdi bihi*. The answer is due to the pragmatic function of the verb which is to achieve the semantic componential feature of continuity and progression *al-huduth wal-tajaddud* that is embodied by the verb that occurs sentence-initially.

Example 3

(يَسْأَلُونَكَ مَاذَا أُحِلَّ لَهُمْ)

(They ask you (O Muhammad) what is lawful for them (as food). Q5:4) (al-Hilali and Khan)

(They ask thee what is lawful to them (as food). Q5:4) (Yusuf Ali)

(They ask thee (O Muhammad) what is made lawful for them. Q5:4) (Pickthall)

(They ask you, (O Muhammad), what has been made lawful for them. Q5:4) (Sahih International)

where the *ayah* is verbal, however, the translation starts with nominal sentence. Also, the major issue here is why the Qur’anic statement has started with a verb *yas’al* rather than the subject noun *mādhā uḥilla lahum*. The answer to this lies in the pragmatic function of the verb which is to achieve the semantic componential feature of continuity and progression *al-huduth wal-tajaddud* that is embodied by the verb that occurs sentence-initially.

5.2. Thematic sentences: This kind of sentences normally includes three elements: the theme, a sentence-initial noun phrase that occurs in the nominative case, the rheme, which is the predicate of the theme, and the anaphora, which should have

agreement with the theme in number, gender and person, as in: وَالسَّارِقُ وَالسَّارِقَةُ (فَاقْطَعُوا أَيْدِيَهُمَا) (As for the thief, the male and the female, amputate their hands. Q5:38)

where the theme is the dual noun phrase (السَّارِقُ وَالسَّارِقَةُ – the male and female thief) and its anaphoric pronoun is (هُمَا—their hands (dual)). So by comparing the ST with TT, it is obvious that the translation of the anaphoric pronoun (هُمَا) is not captured in the TT.

5.3. Fronting as a rhetorical / stylistic feature: Fronting (foregrounding) is defined as “a significant stylistic device which is usually employed at both the sentence and text level. It is achieved by the displacement of a word, a phrase or a clause from its original; place in the middle or the end of a sentence to the front position of that sentence” (Ghazala 1995:211-212). Fronting (ibid) is used to emphasize something important for the reader / listener or to attain a function which is a part of the message. It is worth mentioning that TT should have a natural style and the translation should meet the linguistic and stylistic norms of the TL. Therefore, the following translations of the examples below do not have an English natural style. The translations are semantically equivalent to the ST and they should be based on communicative translation which requires natural style. In other words, communicative translation as indicated by Newmark (1988b: 45-47) attempts to render the precise contextual meaning of the SL in such a way that both content and language are readily acceptable and comprehensible to the readership.

Example 1

(الْيَوْمَ أُحِلَّ لَكُمْ الطَّيِّبَاتُ)

(This day (all) good foods have been made lawful. Q5:5)

(Made lawful to you this day are *A tyyibat* [all kinds of Halal (lawful) foods] (al-Hilali and Khan)

Example 2

(وَعَلَى اللَّهِ فَتَوَكَّلُوا إِن كُنْتُمْ مُؤْمِنِينَ)

(And upon Allah rely, if you should be believers. Q5:23)

(Put all your trust in God, if you are believers. Q5:23) (Arberry)

Example 3

(وَالسَّارِقُ وَالسَّارِقَةُ فَاقْطَعُوا أَيْدِيَهُمَا)

(As for) the thief, the male and the female, amputate their hands. Q5:38)

(Cut off from the wrist joint the right hand of the thief, male or female. Q5:38)

(al-Hilali and Khan)

We can claim that equivalence has not been achieved in the above mentioned examples. Also, the translation of the Qur'anic statements has not achieved such stylistic feature. In other words, translators have totally ignored foregrounding in their translation of the three ayahs.

5.4. Case ending: Case ending is a kind of stylistic shift that can be found in Qur'anic genre. This type of stylistic variation occurs from the nominative to the accusative case or vice versa.

Example 1

(وَعَدَ اللَّهُ الَّذِينَ آمَنُوا وَعَمِلُوا الصَّالِحَاتِ لَهُمْ مَغْفِرَةٌ وَأَجْرٌ عَظِيمٌ)

(Allah has promised those who believe and do good works: Theirs will be forgiveness and a great reward. Q5:9)

(وَعَدَ اللَّهُ الَّذِينَ آمَنُوا وَعَمِلُوا الصَّالِحَاتِ مِنْهُمْ مَغْفِرَةً وَأَجْرًا عَظِيمًا)

(Allah has promised those who believe and do righteous deeds among them forgiveness and a great reward. Q48:29.

where the two sentences are semantically similar, however, they are stylistically different. The stylistic shift occurs between the two *ayahs* from the nominative case *maghfiratun wa ajrun* ^ʿ*azimun* in Q5:9 to the accusative case *maghfiratan wa ajran* ^ʿ*aziman* in Q48:29. However, the translation has not achieved this Qur'anic stylistic feature and thus, it is lost in the TT.

Example 2

(وَأَمْسَحُوا بِرُءُوسِكُمْ وَأَرْجُلِكُمْ إِلَى الْكَعْبَيْنِ)

(And wipe over your heads and wash your feet to the ankles.Q5:6) (Sahih International)

(And wipe your heads and your feet to the ankles. Q5:6) (Shakir)

I believe this example constitutes a translation problem because of the word (أرجل- the feet) of (أرجلكم-*arjulakum*-your feet)) which can occur in two different forms; for example, it can be in the accusative case according to the recitation of Nafi^c, Ibn ʿAmir, al-kisaʿi, Haf^s, ʿAsim and Yaʿqub as mentioned by Rājiḥ (1994:108). This mode of reading i.e. the accusative case, makes the object noun (أرجل-*arjul*) conjoined to the other earlier object nouns which are

also in the accusative case (وَأَيْدِيكُمْ وَأُجُوهَكُمْ-wujūhakum wa ʿaydiyakum).

Therefore, Muslims who adopt this mode normally wash their faces, hands and feet in their preparation for the daily prayers. However, the other mode of reading makes the same word in the genitive case i.e., (أرجلكم-*arjulikum*).

Hence, Muslims who adopt this mode of reading usually wipe their feet with

their wet hands; this is because the word (أَرْجُلِكُمْ) –*arjulikum*) is grammatically analysed as being conjoined to the noun (رُؤُوسِكُمْ) –*ru'ūsikum*); this mode of reading is for the rest of reciters (ibid). From the translation view point, translators like Yusuf Ali, Pickthall, al-Hilali and Khan and Sahih International, have adopted the first mode of reading i.e. (أَرْجُلَاكُمْ) –*arjulakum*) and therefore, their translation for this word is (wash your feet to the ankles) i.e. similar to each other. However, other translators like Shakir and Mir Ahmed Ali who have adopted the second mode of reading i.e. (أَرْجُلِكُمْ) –*arjulikum*), provide this translation: (wipe a part of your heads and your feet up to the ankles) (Shakir). (Wipe a part of your heads and a part of your feet to the ankles) (Mir).

5.5. Word order: Word order is a stylistic alteration which is a recurrent linguistic element in Qur'anic discourse. This form of stylistic change is conditioned by the context of situation in the Qur'anic discourse.

Example 1

(وَمَا أَهْلٌ لِّغَيْرِ اللَّهِ بِهِ)

(And that which has been dedicated to other than Allah. Q5:3)

(وَمَا أَهْلٌ بِهِ لِّغَيْرِ اللَّهِ)

(And that which has been dedicated to other than Allah. Q2:173) where the two *ayahs* are syntactically different in Arabic, as in Q5: 3 the structure is (لِّغَيْرِ اللَّهِ بِهِ) whereas in Q2:173 the structure has been changed into (بِهِ لِّغَيْرِ اللَّهِ), so, it is notable that the translation of the above two Qur'anic sentences does not indicate this stylistic shift in word order that occurs in the ST, therefore, due to the target text grammatical requirement, the translation unfortunately fails to retain the source text word order.

where in Q2:173, the prepositional phrase (بِهِ –*bihi*–with it) comes first as the normal word order in Arabic. In the other sentence however, (بِهِ –*bihi*) is backgrounded, i.e., placed sentence- finally to highlight the object (لِّغَيْرِ اللَّهِ –to other than Allah) and bring it to the reader's attention. It should also be noted that the translation has not captured the stylistic shift in word order in Arabic.

Example 2

(لَّهُمْ جَنَّاتٌ تَجْرِي مِنْ تَحْتِهَا الْأَنْهَارُ خَالِدِينَ فِيهَا أَبَدًا رَضِيَ اللَّهُ عَنْهُمْ وَرَضُوا عَنْهُ ذَلِكَ الْفَوْزُ الْعَظِيمُ)

(For them are gardens (in Paradise) beneath which rivers flow, wherein they will abide forever, Allah being pleased with them, and they are pleased with Him. That is the great attainment. Q5:119)

(رَضِيَ اللَّهُ عَنْهُمْ وَرَضُوا عَنْهُ وَأَعَدَّ لَهُمْ جَنَّاتٍ تَجْرِي تَحْتِهَا الْأَنْهَارُ خَالِدِينَ فِيهَا أَبَدًا ذَلِكَ الْفَوْزُ الْعَظِيمُ)

(Allah is pleased with them and they are pleased with Him, and He has prepared for them gardens beneath which rivers flow, wherein they will abide forever. That is the great attainment. Q9:100)

where both *ayahs* are semantically similar but they are linguistically and stylistically different in the ST. Translation has failed to accomplish this linguistic and stylistic difference, for example, the preposition (من-*min*) has not been captured in the TT. Also, in Q9:100 where the Arabic sentence starts with an active verbal phrase, the translator has changed this structure into passive.

5.6. Qur'anic particles: Qur'anic particles are Qur'an-specific cohesive devices which are frequently displayed in Qur'anic discourse. These cohesive elements perform both a linguistic and a rhetorical textual function in the Qur'anic text. They are, according to Abdul-Raof (2001:139), "Qur'anic text building strategies that make them inseparable, and, therefore, translation-resistant". He (2010:261) also claims that the translation of Arabic devices such as (إن-*in*) and (إذا-*idha*) cannot be translated to the English reader as equivalent to the English condition particle (if) for both Arabic particles. Let us consider the following particles: (إن-*indeed / verily/ certainly/ surely/*), (إذا-*if*), (قد - *must, will*), (لن - *will never*), (أن), (ل + ل), (ألا), and initial (ل). I have found around 183 particles in Q5; thus, a good number of examples will be provided. al-Suyuti (1996, 1:402) states that (إذا) is semantically oriented; it is used in the Qur'anic text with frequent repeated actions for different reasons, whereas (إن) is employed with action that is rare to happen:

Example 1

(يَا أَيُّهَا الَّذِينَ آمَنُوا إِذَا قُمْتُمْ إِلَى الصَّلَاةِ ... وَإِنْ كُنْتُمْ جُنُبًا فَاطَّهَّرُوا)

(O you who have believed, when you rise to perform prayer ... and if you are in a state of 'janabah' ceremonial impurity, then purify yourselves. Q5:6)

We can assert that the particle (إذا- *idha*) is used in this *ayah* to refer to repeated action of the daily ablution for the five prayers while the particle (إن) in the

second part of the *ayah* is employed as an indication of the infrequent action of ceremonial impurity.

Example 2

(وَأَمْسَحُوا بِرُؤُوسِكُمْ)

(Rub your heads (with water). Q5:6) (Yusuf Ali)

(And Wipe over your heads. Q5:6) (Sahih International)

(And wipe your heads. Q5:6) (Shakir)

(And lightly rub your heads. Q5:6) (Pickthall)

(Rub (by passing wet hands over) your heads) (al-Hilali and Khan)

Although the preposition (ب) in the above Qur'anic *ayah* is semantically oriented, it has been difficult to copy in the TT. According to Qur'an exegetes of this *ayah*, the meaning of the preposition here is that only the front part of the head and not all of it that should be wiped with our wet hands while preparing for the prayers, i.e., when doing 'al-wudu' the ablution. Therefore, we can understand that this preposition is employed in the Qur'anic *ayah* for communicative as well as for rhetorical reasons; rhetorically, it is used to generate the rhetorical function of synecdoche which is impossible for the translator to capture.

Throughout these two Qur'anic examples, we can argue that the semantico-syntactic interrelation, i.e. the Qur'an-specific cohesive devices are untranslatable; this is due to the fact that the TL has distinct syntactic norms and particles that may not have semantic functions identical to those of Qur'anic Arabic. Moreover, the SL syntactic means as well as their semantic links are difficult to transfer into TL.

5.7. Verbal idioms: Verbal idioms are a major constituent of the Qur'anic language and they are to a certain extent, recurrently employed in the Qur'an. According to Mir (1989:5) a verbal idiom is "a verbal compound, more or less invariant in form, whose meaning cannot be derived easily from the combined meanings of the individual units of the compound". In the following example of Q5, we shall see how verbal idioms in the Qur'an have led to a less-than-perfect translation.

Example 1

(هَلْ يَسْتَطِيعُ رَبُّكَ أَنْ يُنَزِّلَ عَلَيْنَا مَائِدَةً مِنَ السَّمَاءِ)

(Is thy Lord able to send down for us a table spread with food from heaven? Q5:112) (Picktall)

(Can your Lord send down to us a table [spread with food] from the heaven?)

(Sahih International)

(Can your Lord send down to us a table spread (with food) from heaven?) (al-Hilali and Khan)

(Can thy Lord send down to us a table set (with viands) from heaven?) (Yusuf Ali)

(Will your Lord consent to send down to us food from heaven?) (Shakir)

(Could thy Sustainer send down unto us a repast from heaven?) (Asad)

(Is thy Lord able to send down on us a Table out of heaven?) (Arberry)

where the above mentioned *ayah* begins with the verbal expression (هَلْ يَسْتَطِيعُ

hal yastati) which is not a question about the ability or the competence of God to do something, however, the use of 'ability' is idiomatic and is analogous to "Could you (kindly)?" in English. Therefore, the meaning of the verbal idiom (هَلْ يَسْتَطِيعُ *hal yastati*) has not been provided in translation (Mir 1989:11).

We can argue that such idioms are Qur'an-specific and, therefore, they are resistant to alteration in form and meaning. (ibid: 12).

6. Conclusion

We can argue that the Qur'an is not easy to be transferred into any other languages because the native speakers of Arabic themselves differ in its interpretation on the theological, linguistic, stylistic, and semantic levels. However, a comprehensive understanding of the Qur'an can be achieved to a certain extent by studying classical exegetical works. The Qur'an has not only deep theological sense but is also written in rhymed prose and its unique meter cannot be rendered in any other language. Comprehending the Qur'an theologically needs not only random introspection into the Holy text, but, as well getting acquainted with the exegeses of the recognized exegetes, following not the sequence of the *ayahs* in the Qur'an, but the logic of the mission of the Prophet Muhammad and the sequence of the *ayahs* as they were revealed. Today we may see that the attempts to translate the Qur'an literally and to translate its theological meaning word by word disregarding its overall content and ignoring its sublime style have not succeeded. An adequate and a comprehensive translation may only be done based on recognized exegeses which serve us as an intermediary language and allows us understand the original based on the knowledge of the traditions of the Prophet, only then we can try to create our own translation. Creating a short comprehensive exegesis can only be done by its native speaker who is familiar with the prophetic traditions. That is why we recommend that the translation of the meanings of Qur'an must be done by a committee or a council including scholars in the Qur'anic exegesis, *hadith*, classical Arabic and religious vocabulary of the target language. This is due to the fact that it is impossible for one individual to be specialized in all these disciplines. Besides, We recommend that a translator should enjoy the conditions of the Qur'anic exegete. He should also be faithful and honest in translation and have Islamic sound belief. Moreover, he should be competent and have well-

grounded knowledge of both languages i.e., Arabic which is the source language of the Holy Qur'an and the target language.

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**Teachers' Perception of the Incorporation of their first language in
Foreign Language Teaching
Alaq Assem Alhayani
Academic year(2017-2018)
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Abstract

One of the concerns foreign language teachers may have about using activities is that students will use their first language instead of the target language. This paper examines the attitudes of Libyan teachers towards employing mother tongue as a facilitating tool in foreign English classes. Data were collected through semi-structured interviews with six lecturers who teach EFL at the faculty of Education in Misurata, Libya. The study has revealed that the attitudes of the teachers towards using mother tongue were generally positive and the participants preferred using mother tongue in certain situations and for specific reasons. Based on the findings, this study provides some helpful suggestions that may reduce future problems regarding the use of MT.

Keywords: classroom codeswitching, Libya, second language, L1, mother tongue.

Chapter I: Introduction

There has been a shift in attitudes towards the position of the first language in foreign language classroom. Opponents of the monolingual approach question the pedagogical roots of such widely held views and have offered counter arguments to the above in favor of first language (hereafter L1) use. Opposing the idea of keeping MT out of language classrooms, McMillan & Rivers (2011) suggest that L1 can be used particularly in contexts where the teachers and students share the same mother tongue. The argument in favour of L1 put into question the notion of exposure in a natural environment may have negative outcomes. On the other hand, these researchers warn against the excessive use of L1 when learning a foreign language. However they do supporter using it judiciously in occasions such as eliciting language, assessing comprehension, giving instructions, and explaining grammar. The principled use of L1 in conjunction with TL has been proposed for a variety of pedagogical reasons: to provide a framework for tasks (Anton & Dicamilla, 1998), to promote the transition from L1 to TL use (Shamash, 1990), to improve negotiations (Swain & Lapkin, 2000), and to enhance TL comprehension (Turnbull, 2001)

According to Cook (2016), interference is an obstacle to the learning of a foreign language that learners can overcome only if they separate L1 and the target language. Additionally, Levine (2014) maintains that translation is as a crucial social skill as it encourages communication as well as support understanding. Furthermore, translation involves complex language processing requirements including selection, coordination and monitoring of information at different levels. Moreover, translating does not function within one language and denotes the skill to relate two language systems to one another appropriately. Here Gonzalez (2013) suggests that negative interference is minimized while positive interference in selecting the most appropriate translational equivalents is maximized. The heating debate on the use of L1 in many foreign language contexts has led me to investigate this issue in my teaching context and approach how Libyan teacher perceive the use of Arabic in their English language classroom.

1.1 AIMS AND RATIONALE

This study is designed in order to gather Libyan teachers' views on the use of L1. Since there has been little research so far in this area, the primary goal of this study is to find evidence to support the idea that L1 can facilitate L2 acquisition and to reject the existing notion that L1 acts as a hindrance. This study assumes that L2 use in the classroom should be maximized, however, there should also be a place for careful use of L1. The importance of the role of L1 in the classroom seems worthy of consideration, as, to date, very few studies in Libya have been conducted to address the topic. Therefore the hope is that the elicited findings and the offered guidelines will shed more light on the importance of L1 in L2 acquisition particularly in Libyan EFL context. In Libya, most EFL teachers insist on running their classes on the bases of a "monolingual

approach“ where only L2 is used within the framework of their classrooms. One main problem is the idea that exposure to language leads to learning. Excluding the students' L1 for the sake of maximizing students' exposure to the L2 is not necessarily productive (Dujmovic, 2007), on the other hand, some EFL teachers ask this question: “Is it acceptable or helpful to use the L1 (Arabic) in our English classes or not?” To provide an answer to this question, it is necessary to seek clarifications from literature.

1.2 Research questions

The issue of mother tongue in EFL contexts has been a major debate whether to use the mother tongue or only the target language. This study tries to answer three main questions

1. What are the teachers' attitudes towards using Arabic in EFL classes and to what extent is Arabic used in EFL classes?
2. What are the teachers' reasons for employing or avoiding Arabic?
3. What are the situations in which teachers prefer to use Arabic?

1.3 The authenticity of the study.

As I am a teacher myself, I used to believe that using L1 in teaching and explaining some vocabulary or some grammar rules is something that should be avoided as much as possible. However, using L1 in some situation could be of a large effect.

Chapter II: Literature review

It is a popular belief that second language acquisition (SLA) is strongly influenced by the learner's first language. The clearest support for this belief comes from 'foreign' accents in the second language (L2) speech of learners. When an Arab speaks English, his English sounds Arabic. The learner's L1 also affects the other language levels-vocabulary and grammar. Another belief is that the role of L1 in SLA is negative one. That is, the L1 gets in the way or interferes with the learning of the L2, such that features of the L1 are transferred into the L2 (Ellis, 2008). There is still a controversy of using mother tongue or L1 in second language teaching learning. The use of L1 or mother tongue in English classroom has some advantages and disadvantages. It depends on when and what amount of first language is used in the EFL classroom. For example, Harmer (1991) points out that there are many occasions when using the students' L1 in the classroom has obvious advantages: If teachers want to discuss making a learning contact with their students, or to ask students what they want or need, then they will get more from lower-level students if they do it in the students' L1 than if they try to struggle through with English. Translation can also be a very good way of reviewing how well students have understood grammar and lexis at the end of a unit of study. Students (and their teachers) can use the L1 to keep the social atmosphere of the class in good repair. At the same time, his serious objection to the use (especially the over-use) of the students' L1 is that it restricts the students' exposure to English. The students' knowledge of their mother tongue is the greatest asset that they generally bring to the English language classroom. Al Khotaba (2013) admits that teachers try to prevent their students from using L1 in the classroom, but they cannot prevent students from using L1 in their brains. The students' brain space is filled with their mother tongue that has formed the neural networks of their brains and their knowledge is in L1. They comprehend and process their thoughts in L1. Every journey starts from home. The linguistic journey into the foreign language also starts from home. He concludes that linguistic home, for the students, is their L1. The role of mother tongue also depends on the teaching methods a teacher applies in the classroom. Larsen-Freeman (2011) supports the role of the mother tongue in the classroom procedures and summarizes the role of L1 in various ELT methods. For example, Grammar Translation method: The meaning of the target language is made clear by translation into students' native language. Direct method and Audio-lingual method: The students' native language should not be used in the classroom because it is thought that it will interfere with the students' attempts to master the target language. Communicative Language Teaching: Judicious use of the students' native language is permitted in communicative language teaching. To conclude with Al Khotaba (2013) teachers would be required to be aware of when, how and why to use L1, that is to say, the proper use of L1 who denied that word-for-word and sentence-for-sentence translation. Many studies shows that limited use of mother tongue is beneficial and over use of it may counter-

productive as it encourages the low exposure in target language. To sum up, previous studies on teachers' and learners' use of L1 suggest that using L1 is a natural and realistic process. Some studies have found that using L1 is unavoidable and fundamental to L2 acquisition (Schneider, 1979, cited in Kharma and Hajjaj, 1989). This view contradicts many other views which adhere to the possibility of using L2 as a natural communicative device (e.g. Halliwell and Jones, 1991). The reason for highlighting the issue of L1 in different methods and from both teachers' and students' sides is to provide a strong rationale for this study.

Methods and principles for employing L1

The literature of teaching EFL reveals that there are teaching methods, which use L1 deliberately. For example, the Grammar-Translation Method. This method requires teachers to balance the use of L1 and L2 (Faltis, 1990). Codeswitching which facilitates language learning should be systematic and purposeful. Four areas of codeswitching to L1 have been identified: introducing concepts, reviewing a previous lesson, capturing learners' attention and praising learners (Faltis, 1990). Adding to this point, a study by Raschka et al. (2009) in a Taiwanese classroom concluded that codeswitching is a frequent strategic device used by highly communicative competent teachers. Other similar methods which link L1 and L2 are the Bilingual Method, developed by Dodson (1967), and the Reciprocal Language Teaching (Hawkins, 1987) which aims at preparing proficient students and allowing them to switch easily from L2 to L1 and vice versa. However, trying to balance L1 and L2 may be problematic in contexts where English is only spoken in the classroom. More systematic methods that encourage the limited use of L1 have appeared. One of these methods is the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). The aim of this method is to achieve communicative competence through the focus on the four language skills for active communication (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Using L1 can occur when giving class instructions; however, learners should be encouraged to use L2 as a medium of communication even for class management (Littlewood, 1981). The benefit of using L2 for class management is that "The students learn from these classroom management exchanges, too, and realise that the target language is a vehicle for communication" (Larsen-Freeman, 2000: 132). Another method which minimizes L1 is the Task-Based Method (Willis and Willis, 2007). This method requires learners to complete a task in L2 through pair or group work. Even though Learners can use different tools to communicate in L2 such as gestures and copying words from the task sheet, translation can be used as the last strategy as proposed by Prabhu (1987): Although tasks were presented and carried out in the target language, the use of the learner's mother tongue in the classroom was neither disallowed nor excluded. The teacher normally used it only for an occasional glossing of words or for some complex procedural instructions,

Chapter III: Methodology

For a research area that is largely unexplored, as in the case of Libya, it is advantageous to use qualitative research method. Through the whole research I will adopt qualitative approach based on the view that this is “inclusive, and complementary” (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Dornyei (2011) suggests that a better understanding of a complex phenomenon can be achieved “by converging specific details from qualitative data” (p. 45). Such a convergence and corroboration of findings has the powerful advantage of improving the validity of outcomes. Hence, in the present study, by using qualitative approach I would present an elaborate understanding and greater confidence in conclusions in relation to the issue of L1 use in the Libyan context.

3.1 Setting

The context of this study is the Faculty of Education in Misrata, Libya. It is a public college in Libya. With a total number around four thousand students, it is one of the biggest institutions in Libya. The study was carried out in the English department, faculty of Education among lecturers.

3.2 Participants

My sample is six participants (four male and two female lecturers) from the University of Misrata. They are all Libyan native Arabic speakers who are graduated from Libyan universities, and have work experience ranging from 3 to 5 years in the department. I believe that this purposively selected sample enabled me to achieve the quality of data deemed necessary in this study. That is, considering their position as lecturers within the university as well as their work experience in the field in Libya meant they are well informed of and were in a position to highlight what actually takes place within the Libyan EFL classrooms, possible reasons for this from their different perspectives.

3.3 Data Collection

Semi-structured individual interviews and open-ended questions were conducted with participants to investigate their perception towards using L1 in EFL classes in depth. to discover how teachers think and feel about the topic and why they hold certain opinions.

3.4 Tools

In the current study, I used a mobile phone to record the interviews in order to know their perceptions and attitudes towards using their mother tongue in EFL classes.

3.4 Qualitative Approach

Qualitative Research is primarily subjective in approach as it seeks to understand human behavior and reasons that govern such behavior. I have the tendency to become subjectively immersed in the subject matter. I chose qualitative approach to provide a complete, detailed description of my research.

3.5 Validity of the interviews

I aimed to improve my data collection technique as much as possible so as to enhance the validity and reliability of my study findings. In pursuit of this I considered it important to conduct a pilot study to practise the interview questions by interviewing a Libyan teacher on phone. This gave me the opportunity to gain interview skills and to identify areas that required personal development before data collection. It allowed me to detect wording issues that needed to be resolved to avoid ambiguity and so enhance the integrity of data. It also assisted me in determining the most logical and smooth-flowing order of the questions. Finally, the pilot study also provided me with a good indication of the time required to conduct the interviews.

Chapter IV: Findings And Discussion

Participants reported high use based on issues which they linked to the Libyan education system and administration. However, following analysis of the data I found issues with lack of teacher training and proficiency levels among teachers as potentially underlying this high use. Subsequently, the findings in relation to uses of L1 will present various pedagogical functions. Here I suggested that factors related to course content, lack of training, and teacher proficiency level in the target language were potentially influencing such uses of L1. Finally, findings on teachers' attitudes towards the use of L1 reveal an overall positive attitude. Six teachers were interviewed and asked why they sometimes preferred using Arabic to English in their classes. The interviews were recorded and summarized.

- Manal: Firstly, I think using some Arabic is more effective and less time consuming. Occasionally, when you spend quite some time or use several English sentences to explain one word or idea, and the students still look confused, using one simple Arabic word or idiom might solve the problem. Class time is limited; if using Arabic is helpful, why not do it? Secondly, criticizing the use of Arabic on the grounds that the students' exposure to English will be reduced does not reflect the fact that students read the English text and still communicate in English with the teacher and other students in the classroom. The use of some Arabic in the class actually provides more time for students to practice their English and get exposure to English. Lastly, the amount of English used depends on the students' language proficiency level. If their English is at an advanced level, I feel no need to use Arabic. All in all, I think that using some Arabic in the classroom is necessary and the advantages of doing so outweigh any disadvantages.

- Ahmed: The main reason I use Arabic in the classroom is that sometimes students, because of their low proficiency level in English, fail to follow me when I only use English to explain the meaning of the text or to give instructions. Also, when I happen to know a very vivid and appropriate Arabic translation of an English sentence, I will give it to students so they can immediately comprehend the meaning of the English sentence. This also helps them compare the word choices in the two languages.

- Nada: I use Arabic to discuss the meaning of some difficult, abstract words and to explain the grammar and ideas expressed in long and complicated sentences. Sometimes when students look confused after my English explanation of certain points, I will use Arabic to reinterpret them. Furthermore, when the classroom is noisy, using Arabic to keep order is more effective than using English. In response to how the use of L1 made them feel, there was an agreement amongst the majority of participants that such use was undesirable and that

teachers should avoid it. This was true even of those who used Arabic extensively in their teaching. This is clear from the following extracts:

Participant

1: "I tried not to use Arabic ... " (Manal).

2: "It was wrong (using Arabic)...what we were doing was wrong" (Ahmed).

3: "I don't use Arabic unless it is absolutely necessary" (Nada).

As the interviews developed and other participants offered reasons for their overall high use of L1, it was evident that they were generally attempting to draw attention to various factors such as students' levels, and difficulties linked with public higher education institutions and high school learning experience. Teachers stated that high L1 use was primarily due to the low proficiency levels amongst the majority of students. When asked about the frequency of their use of L1, participants, as represented by the following selection, reported a high use, though overall there was a degree of variance. I illustrate through the following comments from participants:

"Well, It's a MUST (using Arabic) always at the university...with most semesters" "we have many weak students ... even in the second or third semester...and they need Arabic in class. I have no choice but to help them" (Yousef).

"I don't use Arabic unless it is absolutely necessary...I do my best not to use Arabic...but do eventually use it " (Adam)

"Actually...quite frankly I do use it (Arabic)... You know... but with the first year students...it was not possible not to at all. But I did try to use less Arabic especially with the more advanced years..." (Ali)

Other reasons forwards by teachers in justifying the wide use of L1 included students' previous learning at high school. Here reference was directly made to high school learning experience and a perhaps a less direct statement implying that such a fact influenced the participants' own practices in terms of meeting students' expectation through a high L1 use.

"... high school teachers used Arabic throughout lessons...this is a fact that every Libyan who went to school here knows" (Ahmed)

"...they are used to it" (use of Arabic from high school.) (Adam)

"They mainly used Arabic in teaching (high school)..." (Nada)

Similar to the results in the present study, other research has documented use of the L1 in various contexts (Macaro, 2005) with numerous benefits associated with this use (Macaro, 2001; Lee & Macaro, 2013). One of the highest functions of L1 has been to teach grammar, which is in line with other research findings. Such was significant as it established the need for the use of L1 in explicit teaching of structure within this context. This would challenge the argument that maximum exposure is crucial in achieving learning of the target language

Ethics

A consideration of ethics was a critical part of this study, as such, it was important for me to ensure that I informed participants of the purpose and nature of the interviews. I also made participants aware of how I will use the data and they will be informed that their speech will be recorded for later analysis. Furthermore, since privacy is a crucial ethical matter, it was important to assure participants of both anonymity and confidentiality.

Chapter V : Conclusion

In conclusion, My research investigated the controversial issue of mother tongue use within the

Libyan EFL classroom. This I undertook through addressing the three following points from Libyan teachers' perspectives:

- 1) The extent to which Arabic is used in the teaching of EFL.
- 2) The main reasons for the use of Arabic in the teaching of EFL
- 3) Attitudes towards the use of Arabic in the teaching of EFL.

The study shows that limited and judicious use of the L1 in the English classroom does not reduce students' exposure to English, but rather can assist in the teaching and learning processes. This is not to overstate the role of the L1 or advocate greater use of L1 in the EFL classroom, but to clarify some misconceptions that have troubled foreign language teachers for years, such as whether they should use L1 when there is a need for it and whether the often-mentioned principle of no native language in the classroom is justifiable. It is hoped that these findings will help make more people acknowledge the role of the native language in the foreign language classroom and stimulate further study in this area.

Here are some suggestions for EFL teachers drawn from the results of the study that may reduce future problems regarding the use of MT

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Discussion Whether TTT is the Correct Methodology to Use When Teaching English to English Foreign Language Students

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Abstract

English as a Second/Foreign Language (L2/EFL) teaching course mainly aims to facilitate students' learning and to enhance their communication fluency. Hence practicing oral activities play a crucial role in the Second/Foreign Language classroom. Nevertheless, in most traditional interaction classroom patterns teachers are not only the centre of attention, but they also provide the L2/EFL input and grammar explanation, as a result students are left with miniature space to practice their English inside the classroom. Despite the fact that a large number of researchers argue that teachers have an important role in providing the input, the current paper intends to raise awareness of the fact that Student Talking Time (STT) is also essential in L2/EFL language acquisition. This research sheds light on the role of STT vis-à-vis Teacher Talking Time (TTT), fostering the augmentation of the former in the Libyan EFL classrooms. Besides, it also attempts to contribute to this field of study.

Introduction

The researcher in the current paper aims to look at a key issue in ELT methodology which is TTT whilst teaching English to foreign language students in the English department at the Faculty of Arts Misurata University. The researcher also discusses how this methodology could be improved, and shows the disadvantages of using TTT, compared to STT. He then examines the benefits of using STT within the classroom before drawing to a conclusion.

TTT is a teacher-centered or 'didactic' teaching method. It involves the teacher standing in front of the class and giving a verbal input. A teaching session may, of course, include many other activities besides teacher talk. It is believed however by some researchers that a good teacher is one who says as little as possible, while others contend that students can only learn by hearing the teacher talk. (British Council:2008). For some EFL students (EFL), the idea of STT can be quite petrifying especially as they try to adjust with the creativity style learning methods employed by most Western countries. For example, students from Asia and the Middle East find their teachers take on a more authoritarian role, whilst their role is simply to listen and take notes. A related view in many Chinese students' minds is that learning needs serious and painstaking effort.

Activities which are 'pleasurable' and rather 'fun' are seen as being rather suspect, and are not considered conducive to proper learning. Chang (2001) observes that students in TTT hardly question their teachers, as they would assume everything the teacher says to be correct. There is therefore no room for debate, which is a complete contrast to Western teaching styles, where

questioning and student interaction is preferred. Petty (2004:154) argues that 'Teacher talk' is the most commonly used teaching method, on average occupying at least 60 per cent of most lessons. Certainly, it can help to provide explanations and 'doing-detail'; but crucially it cannot provide for corrected practice and learners' needs. Devoting 60 per cent of a lesson to teacher talk is clearly far too much. Though it can be a rapid method of imparting knowledge to students as well as a very convenient model for delivering explanation, it certainly has many disadvantages. As Petty's (2004) study has shown, a number of studies which argued that TTT is less effective and the teachers should reduce it for various reasons, such as:

- The overuse of TTT limits the quantity of STT and the actual participation of the learners as discussed in the 60 percent example above.
- The input the teachers provide to the students in the classroom could be obtained elsewhere by the learners themselves. Things such as grammar and vocabulary are commonplace. What teachers should focus on as a matter of fact is real situation activities and interaction as well as corrections.
- The domination of TTT in the classroom could threaten the chances for developing learners' speaking ability. Accordingly, Petty (2004) urges learners to be responsible for their learning.
- The exaggeration of using TTT in the classroom usually compels the underuse of communicative techniques, whereas in STT the control of the classroom shifts from teachers to learners who are tasked with utilization of group work and pair work techniques instead.

Conversely, several problems could emerge when student to student talk takes place in the classroom. Low English proficiency learners might not be able to interact efficiently with each other because they lack the linguistic knowledge and skills. It is believed that learners whose pragmatic proficiency is weak are not able of picking up the target language from each other (cf. Dellar 2004). There is also a chance that learners could teach one another bad habits or mistaken language rules and expressions. For the most part, language is considered an input driven (Cook 2000 and Chaudron 1988). In that learners learn more when adequate comprehensible input is provided to them. Thus, TTT and STT are crucially and mutually important. In connection with this point, Dellar (2004) states that "the basic thrust of the argument has long been that TTT and STT exist in a kind of see-saw relationship: if the seesaw swings towards one, it will inevitably swing away from the other. TTT and STT are depicted as existing in opposition and any more complex relationship between generally glossed over".

Context

In Libya, the majority of learners study English as a foreign language in classrooms (EFLL). Relatively, classroom language is considered as the major if not the only source of learning a foreign language. It has been claimed that the input that teachers provide to L2/FL learners influence language learning,

although researchers and scholars are uncertain about how and to what extent such influence on language learning (Svendsen 2014). Since a better understanding of teachers' talk can certainly assist learners to enhance their learning and to utilise the teacher talk effectively when they interact in the target language, it is essential to investigate teacher talk from a theoretical and practical view. Thus, the current study is in the context where English language learners who studied English for 3 years in secondary school and another 3 years in high and now are studying at the university level.

Different Teaching Styles

Scrivener (1994: 6) divides the different teaching styles into three broad categories. She states that there are three types of teachers. "Teacher A: the explainer, Teacher B: the involver, and Teacher C: the enabler". Teacher A: the explainer can be used to define a teacher who relies heavily on TTT. In this type, "teachers know their subject matter very well but have limited knowledge of teaching methodology. This kind of teacher relies mainly on 'explaining' or 'lecturing' as a way of conveying information to the students. The students are listening, perhaps occasionally answering questions and perhaps making notes, but are mostly not being personally involved or challenged. The learners often get practice by doing individual exercises after one phase of the lecture has finished" (ibid: 6).

Teacher B: the involver is not only familiar with subject matter, but also knows about the teaching methodology and techniques. "[He/she] is trying to involve the students actively and puts a great deal of effort into finding appropriate and interesting activities that will do this, while retaining clear control over the class and what happens in it" (ibid: 6).

Teacher C, the enabler, believes essentially teaching is about working with other human being. Unlike the above two types, this teacher is acquainted with issues like subject matter and methodology. Nevertheless, "[She] has an awareness of how individuals and groups are thinking and feeling within her class. She actively responds to this in her planning and working methods and in building effective working relationships and a good classroom atmosphere. Her own personality and attitude are an active encouragement to learning. This kind of teacher is confident enough to share control with the learners... In many cases, she takes the lead from the student: seeing herself as someone whose job is to create the conditions that enable the students to learn for themselves (ibid: 6). Teacher C would be a strong example of one who would use STT, rarely using TTT except where necessary.

As explained in Hoyle (1969:59), this is very important because the role of the teacher has certainly evolved from the traditional view of a teacher being an authoritarian figure to a contemporary idea of the teacher now being defined as a 'guide', a 'councilor' or a 'facilitator' and even a group leader. Hoyle adds that teachers now have many sub-roles and whilst some teachers play only a very

limited range of sub-rules, others may play a wider variety depending on their personality characteristics and their perception of the teaching task (59).

Furthermore, three core characteristics that help to create an effective learning environment were suggested by an American psychologist Carl Rogers. These include respect, empathy and authenticity. The first character i.e. respect represents a positive and non-judgmental person. Empathy is the ability to see things from other people's point of view whereas authenticity is the teacher for example does not hide behind his identity or professional titles, but he/she has to take risk of being oneself i.e. to act naturally and to be human and honest. It is about how to create a channel or good relationship between you and other human being (Rogers 1942 cited in Arnold 2014). It has also been argued that whenever these three features exist in the teacher's personality, the classroom context is not only made useful for learning, but also the teacher's student relationship becomes more powerful and students take the lead for their learning (cf., Scrivener 2011).

By using STT within a classroom a teacher needs to be flexible. They must be prepared to take on these additional roles and, as Hoyle (1969:59) states. "teachers whom observers agreed were most effective used the widest range of patterns. Undoubtedly one of the major qualities of the successful teacher is flexibility". Therefore, language teachers need to consider these ideas to become successful teachers. By sticking to TTT, sub-roles of teachers are ruled out, as there is no involvement from students, and this notion represents a very traditional view of teaching, where the teacher is seen to explain everything and as being the only source of knowledge, rather than expanding on ideas shared within a classroom.

Nonetheless, Gordon (2005) argues that the teacher must ensure that communication made within class is meaningful, and so should be able to communicate effectively with each other rather than picking up each other's bad habits and incorrect expressions and grammar if the teacher is not observing correctly during STT. Scrivener (1994.:7) draws upon his own personal experiences when recalling teachers with most pleasure and respect. The one who made the most favorable expression was the one who listened, encouraged, and respected Scrivener's views and decisions. Curiously this teacher who helped the most was the one who actually did the least 'teaching' of the subject matter and was, seemingly, technique-free, being basically 'himself' in class. Scrivener's memories of his lessons were of what he did, rather than the teacher did, and of his learning rather than his teaching.

Disadvantages of using TTT

An essential lesson that every teacher needs to learn is that 'talking at' the learners does not necessarily mean that learning is taking place: in many cases TTT actually represents time when the learners are not doing very much and are not very involved. Teachers therefore need to be aware of unnecessary TTT. The more a teacher talks, the less opportunity there is for learners. Teachers need to be aware that students would need time to think, to prepare what they are going

to say and how they are going to say it (Scrivener 1994). Consequently, teachers must allow them the time and the quietness they need. Teachers sometimes end up filling all the gaps in the lesson, by repeating themselves far too frequently.

There are further disadvantages to using TTT. As presented in (Petty 2009:163), "Most people talk at about 100 to 200 words per minute. At that rate, a one hour lecture could contain up to 12.000 words- [this is equal to] a short book". It is hardly a surprise that inexperienced teachers lose control with their classes when they use TTT. Petty argues that teaching with teacher talk is rather like herding cows in Ferrari. He states that teaching talk is insufficient because "our short term memory would soon be swamped. With no time to process the new information, it would never become structured enough to pass into the long-term memory, and so it would be quickly forgotten. Nor would learners have any chance to practice using the ideas they were learning. There is much more to teaching than telling" (2004: 155). Therefore, teachers need to be aware of the implications when using TTT and consider how much TTT they use within each class, and ensure it is kept to a minimum, as learners may be unable to cope with the amount of information given in an hour long class, not to mention if they were studying on an intensive program which would require several hours teaching per day.

Petty also states that "the concentration span of some students while they listen to teacher talk is less than five minutes, so this short concentration span puts the near-exclusive use of teacher talk in some educational circles into a rather alarming perspective" (2004: 155). "[T]he short term memory soon gets filled up, and any new materials simply displace earlier material. Even if a teacher-talk session is of moderate length, the teacher cannot guarantee the concentration of all the members of the class all the time. During a ten-minute teacher talk session, almost every student will 'dream off' at least once, perhaps at a crucial point in the explanation" (ibid:155).

If a teacher was to embrace a TTT method in its entirety at the expense of STT, it would not be fair on students as this would mean that it would be the teacher dominating the lesson whilst excluding students from participation. If a teacher was to talk most of the time, learners would not really get a chance to speak, therefore not be able to practice English the way they should. If the only conversation practice learners receive is one-to- one with the teacher, they would have very little time to speak at all. "Excessive TTT limits the amount of STT. If the teacher talks for half the time in a 60 minute lesson with 15 students, each student gets only 2 minutes to speak" (Darn 2007; see also British Council 2008).The teacher would not have much time to speak to each individual within the class hence deterring the learning process. If much of the interaction within a classroom was teacher controlled, there would be variations in how the teacher's time would be distributed among the whole class.

Another way of combating this would be to maximize learner speaking time at certain points of the lesson by putting them into pairs or small groups and

getting them to talk to each other. This means that instead of a few minutes speaking time in a whole lesson, they would all have a choice of speaking practice within a short space of time. The teacher could use this time effectively monitoring what the students are saying, and using the information collected as a source of material for future feedback or other work. Petty compares teacher talk sessions as being rather like watching videos that are 'on the blink' (2004:156). Whilst Pollard (2005:273) goes so far as to argue that teacher-directed whole-class talk is seriously detrimental to learning. Many teachers still use teacher talk too much, and some are quite good at it, so trainee teachers need to be aware of how they can improve their technique, and adopt STT methods. It is fascinating to watch really effective teachers use teacher talk. Often they owe their effectiveness not to what they say but to the way they say it – in particular, their use of body language. They never sit behind a desk or bench, but stand close to the class unless they are using the board a great deal. They move around the classroom, facing first that group, then this, constantly making direct eye contact with students.

The Use of Body Language

The pitch and the volume of the voice change a great deal to add emphasis, and there is much use of gesture and facial expression. Inexperienced teachers, by comparison, are self-conscious and rather flat in their presentation until they gain in confidence'.(Petty 2004:156). Here, these methods could be used by teachers who are not comfortable going straight into STT, and maybe lacking in confidence, so they could start off with some pointers such as body language to try to interact with learners and to develop their presentation.

Darn (2007) for instance, supports the use of body language, mime, gestures and facial expressions rather than words is important in TTT. The position of the teacher in the classroom can also indicate to the students what is expected of them at a particular stage of the lesson. An example of bad practice would be if a teacher would stare either at the floor or at the ceiling, or any other direction but not at students. To improve performance, it would be advisable to use eye contact and body language. This way, students would feel included (ibid). With TTT, most teachers tend to use notes and read from them in class. This is also a bad form of practice, and should be avoided. Petty states that "if notes are to be used, it would be better to put them on an overhead projector or on the board before the lesson" (2004:157). This way, students will assume it is for their own benefit, rather than for the purposes of the teachers' own memory.

Merits of TTT

Meanwhile, TTT when performed correctly is all about not what you say, but how you say it. Experienced teachers have an excellent voice technique, they vary their pitch and volume enormously, and convey enthusiasm by their lively delivery, whilst retaining their natural and informal style. However, teachers with little or no experience may struggle and many times, the problem

learner teachers face when exhibiting TTT is that they repeat, over and over again phrases such as 'OK?' or 'All right?', or they 'um', 'ah' or 'er' too much. Gestures or verbal habits that become mannerisms can be very distracting, and several learner teachers will not be aware of them till they are actually observed (Petty 2004:156).

Petty gives a great example of how gestures can become very distracting in TTT and so all trainee teachers should be aware of such examples. "A History Lecturer at Edinburgh University delivered a lecture to 200 students with his eyes closed throughout. It was a mannerism of his which he thought gave him the air of someone deep in intense concentration. At the end of his lecture, he opened his eyes to find his students had all gone" (2004:157). This proves how important eye contact is when delivering TTT. Without eye contact, the students would feel rejected, and what is important to note from this example is how the lecturer had no idea how students would feel regarding his own mannerisms. These mannerisms could become deeply annoying therefore leading to a complete loss in concentration which would deter learning considerably.

STT replacing TTT

Teacher talk can be enlivened or even replaced by the use of questioning and elicitation. This would involve students and therefore overcome all the disadvantages of using teacher talk. Extending student talk time would encourage the whole class to participate and extend student concentration. By using questioning for STT, the whole process of teaching and learning becomes fully interesting. Students are actively involved rather than passively listening, and the questioning style tends to stimulate the students' curiosity. They are also made to think in the questioning style lesson; the logic of the subject is exposed and they are encouraged to use it. It is important to teach for understanding, rather than just for knowing. Using questioning teaches students to think for themselves (Petty 2004, Kyriacou 2007, Allcock and Hulme 2010 and Cárdenas 2013).

As a result of using questioning techniques to replace TTT, students had their assumptions and prior knowledge challenged and corrected. This process of having incorrect assumptions corrected is sometimes called 'unlearning' (Petty 2004:183). Correction is a vital part of the learning process, so using questioning helps to eradicate misunderstandings. Also, by using questioning as part of STT, teachers are given instant feedback on the understanding of the students, while the lesson is still taking place. It is also very motivating to use questioning as a teaching technique, rather than relying heavily on TTT (cf. Xiao-yan 2006).

Rubin (1985:8) states that "motivation, involvement and concentration are of great significance in the classroom". Students need to know they are making a success of their learning, and it is motivating for a student when he or she answers a question correctly, and immediately gets positive response from the teacher. It is also motivating for the teacher because they are able to check understanding immediately. "Psychologists studying stimulus-response learning found that an immediate reward encouraged learning – students are motivated by

success. Questioning motivates students not just because they find it to be an interesting activity generally, but because it gives them an immediate reward for their endeavor, and demonstrates success in their learning" (Petty 2004:183). It is much more preferable to ask questions rather than give explanations.

The use of STT produces transferable learning, whilst ensuring that the lesson moves at the students' pace. It is more controlled by students, and this is important because it is their needs which need to be fulfilled. It ensures active lessons are taking place, and a huge advantage of using STT within the classroom is that it allows the students to practice their vocabulary and better improve their speaking skills and confidence. A teacher is better able to evaluate learners' performances judging by how well they contribute to classes, and can use this to pick up on areas learners are struggling with and focus on improving their difficulties. In order to achieve this, learners need to develop their strategies approach i.e. strategies knowledge and strategic performance (cf. Fry et al 2009).

Literature review

Richards and Rodgers (1986: 11) argue that the picture of language teaching started to change only in the mid-nineteenth century. In relation to this, a series of changes which aimed to not only highlight the importance of spoken language, but also to increase the opportunities of communication among language users, were suggested by language teaching specialists and linguists. "[Such] changes represented an epistemological shift in the field of language teaching" (Lake 2011: 4). Besides, EFL communities have been begun to accept reducing the amount of teacher talk in the classrooms according to Cullen (1998). Recently, however, along with reducing the amount of teaching emphasis has been given to the implementation of TTT and STT methods to facilitate learning and interaction in the classroom.

Steve Walsh (2006) examined the developing research apparatuses employed by teachers to help them understand the correlation between teacher talk, interaction and learning. The researcher conducted a self-evaluation teacher talk framework for recording and analyzing the data. The findings revealed that the learners increased their awareness of the target language interaction. Chaudron (1988) investigated teacher talk for a long time. The research results showed that the rate of speech of the teacher is slower than the natural rate speech i.e. talk speed. Also, the teachers used self-repeat, pauses and basic vocabulary. Moreover, Sakoda (2002) investigated the TTT and STT to see how long the teachers or the students would talk and what kind of interaction types would happen during the lesson. The researcher used classroom observation for gathering the data. 15 students were observed in English listening and speaking class. The research established that there was no significant difference between listening and speaking classes. Also, it was found that most of teachers tend to talk around 60%. This correlates with Chaudron's (1986) finding,

Methods

The functional features of TTT in university English classrooms and their impact on learners' language learning is implemented in this study.

Questionnaire

A questionnaire adapted from Richards and Lockhart (1994) is designed by the researcher in the current study in order to obtain information on language learners' opinion about their English classes and their teachers' talking time (See Appendix I). This questionnaire consists of 11 items in the terms of the research questions. The analytical results of the questionnaire will be used to describe learners' opinions and teacher talk more precisely and make the present research more applicable. As mentioned above, the researcher of the current study asked 20 EFL to respond to the questionnaire.

Participants

Twenty English language learners who are studying English as a foreign language in the English Department of Faculty of Arts at Misurata University were asked to participate in the current study. It has to be mentioned that each lecture lasts for 2 hours, and most of the lecturers teach for 90 minutes continuously.

3.4.1 Results of the questionnaire

Table.1: The findings of the questionnaire about TTT (questions 1 and 2)

Appropriate time	30	30-50	50-75	80
Number of Learners	4	11	3	2
Percentage	20%	55%	15%	10%

As shown in table 1, the findings of the questionnaire reveals that 75% of the participants think that the appropriate TTT should be less than 50 minutes. These findings connects with Xiao-yan's (2006) study who found that teachers talk should be less than 25 minutes during the period of class time i.e. 45 minutes. In relation, when the participants in the current study were asked to give their suggestions about their English class, the majority '85%' responded that not only to minimize TTT, but also to be given more opportunities to interact in the target language during the lecture. This is in line with Cook's (2001) findings which found that teachers talk is immense and should be minimized.

What is more, the findings in the current study showed that most of the learners 95% like to listen the lecturer's instructions and regard it as an effective learning strategy (See table 2 below).

I like to be asked and answer the questions in class	No	A little	Good	Best
Number of Learners	1	4	10	5
Percentage	5%	20%	50%	25%

Table. 2: Item 3 in the questionnaire

I like to listen to teacher's instruction	No	A little	Good	Best
Number of Learners	-	1	5	14
Percentage	0%	5%	25%	70%

Regards the lecture/teacher's question, 75% of the learners like to be asked and answer the questions in class (See item 4 in table 3 below). It is quite crucial for teacher to direct their questions to the whole class and provide the opportunity to every learner to practice the target language. This has a positive impact on learners' language learning ability (Xiao-yan2006).

Table. 3: Item 4 in the questionnaire

The findings related to the lecture/teacher's questions also showed that 50.% participants like to be volunteers to answer questions, 30% of them prefer way in chorus and 20% students like to be named (See table 4 below).

Table. 4: Item 5 in the questionnaire

I like to answer the questions in this way	in chorus	being named	volunteer
Number of Learners	4	6	10
Percentage	20%	30%	50%

It was also found that 65% of the participants were risk-takers and they liked that their teacher to give them some problems to work on. However, the data showed that only10% of the respondents did not like to engage into classroom activities (See table 5 below).

Table. 5: Item 6 in the questionnaire

I like the teacher to give us some problems to work on	No	A little	Good	Best
Number of Learners	2	5	8	5
Percentage	10%	25%	40%	25%

Furthermore, results in the current study depicted participants' wish for involvement in classroom activities. Almost 95% of the participant reported that

they like to be encouraged and supported by their teacher (See table 6 below). In accordance with Nunan (1991), positive feedback not only makes learners value their performance, but also increases motivation through praises.

Table 6: Item 7 in the questionnaire

I like to be encouraged by teacher's feedback	No	A little	Good	Best
Number of Learners	0	1	2	17
Percentage	0%	5%	10%	85%

When the participants were asked about their mistakes, 85% of them that they like to be pointed out immediately, 80% of them responded that the teacher should give them a chance to correct their mistakes by themselves or negotiate with them for correction (See Appendix II). Therefore, explicit correction, self-repair and negotiation are considered not merely as important aspects of error treatment, but also ways of training learners' awareness of the target language competence (cf. Long, 1980).

Conclusion

To conclude, a small number of studies have focused on what is actually happening in English language classrooms, in particular language learners' perception of their learning practice, and assessment of teachers' talk and preference. The findings in the current study revealed that learners value their teachers classroom input. However, several learners responded that teacher talk should be reduced. Consequently, TT is not about lecturing students, it is about choosing your language carefully to give the them the input that they need at the moment. By using STT, a teacher is able to effect a rapport with students, which is extremely important because without it, STT could be difficult. This is because having that rapport with learners determines effectiveness with them. For successful STT strategies to take place, a teacher must really listen to his/her students and show respect. They must also have a good sense of humor where necessary, and also be patient whilst being approachable. All of these factors will achieve a good understanding between teachers and students and therefore create a warmer learning environment, maximizing STT where possible; since with TTT these factors would not really be of much importance because it would be the teacher doing most of the talking so having a successful rapport would not be necessary.

What is more, the findings in the current study showed that learners have strong desire for participation and interacting in the classroom activities. In this, teachers should open up for a more dynamic interaction class, providing a two-ways language input. The benefit of this strategy helps the teachers to abscond from the tyranny of the textbooks, traditional ways of teaching, learners see the teacher as a human being, which makes the class more productive and learners practice and acquire the target language more quickly. By involving students, as done in STT, this is the most efficient method of learning as well as getting the

learners really involved in a lesson, as opposed to TTT where there is lack of motivation, and boredom reign. Learners will achieve far more in a productive way through STT and so will be further challenged and progress further with this method. Techniques such as questioning and elicitation, and other areas such as body language and eye contact as well as using visual aids all help achieve STT. Thus, all trainee teachers should do their best in implementing these techniques to achieve maximum learner potential, and avoid the traditional view of teaching, by taking full control of the class during TTT. They should not be afraid to taking risks, as mistakes are made to be learnt from and be prepared to take on sub-roles in their development as successful language teachers. For international students, though it may initially be hard to get used to the idea of participation and contribution in the class, which is the main purpose of STT, it would be easier to learn as they would be able to build up their social skills and become more confident whilst learning effectively at the same time.

Limitations and further suggestions

A limited number of the learners preferably '20' or less is required in a class for the effectiveness of the method. However, this number is considered very small compared to the whole population of English language learners at Misurata University. More studies are needed to investigate this phenomena on a large scale.

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Appendix I

Questionnaire

This questionnaire is part of study about how learners learn best in English classroom, Your answers to these questions are strictly unspecified. Please be accurate and objective. Thank You.

1. I like that teacher talk time should be
A .30 minutes B. 30-50 minutes C. 50-60 minutes D. 60-80 minutes
2. Now in my classroom, I think teacher talk time is
A. less B. appropriate C. a little more D. much more
3. I like to listen to teacher's instruction.
A. no B. a little C. good D. best
4. I like to be asked and answer the questions in class.
A. no B. a little C. good D. best
5. I like to answer the questions in this way:
A. in chorus B. being named C. volunteer
6. I like the teacher to give us some problems to work on.
A. no B. a little C. good D. best
7. I like to be encouraged by teacher's feedback.
A. no B. a little C. good D. best
8. I like to be pointed immediately when my answers are incorrect.
A. no B. a little C. good D. best
9. I like to be given more chances to talking and discussing in class.
A. no B. a little C. good D. best
10. I like teachers should negotiate with me for correction.

A. no B. a little C. good D. best.

11. Please give your own suggestions on your English class.

(1994) study

The questionnaire is adopted from Richards and Lockhart's

Appendix II

Table. 7

I like to be pointed immediately when my answers are incorrect	No	A little	Good	Best
Number of Learners	0	1	2	17
Percentage	0%	5%	10%	85%

Table. 8

I like to be given more chances to talking and discussing in class	No	A little	Good	Best
Number of Learners	0	3	1	16
Percentage	0%	15%	5%	80%

Role of Media Literacy in Teaching and Learning English in Libya

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Abstract

We are living in the 21st century, the era of technology and the Internet. People nowadays share ideas and beliefs in seconds through technological devices. Information reaches people so fast via technologies through a powerful combination of images and sounds. Hence, it has become a must in this era that people create a wider set of literacy skills for the sake of understanding the messages received and benefit from the technological devices in receiving and analyzing these messages. Being literate in the 21st century requires a person not only to read and write, but also to be a critical thinker and a user of technological devices. Media literacy, hence, has become beneficial in the field of education, namely in teaching and learning languages. Several studies and research confirm that students write and speak more effectively about something when they see it either in reality or through media. Research and studies confirm that students become more excited in learning when they are able to connect their topic to the real world, which takes place through media. Hence, media literacy gets involved in education to enhance learning and teaching. Media literacy in Libya, in fact, is an ignorant topic of study. Thus, this paper highlights importance of media literacy in education and how Libyan teachers and students can benefit from media literacy in learning English as a foreign language in Libya.

Keywords: media literacy, technological devices, Internet, image, critical thinking, EFL

Rationale

We are living in the 21st century, the era of technology and the Internet. It is a matter of fact that people nowadays share ideas, thoughts, and beliefs in moments through technological devices, specifically through Internet. In this regard, Fox (2001) said, “Media and technology make up two main ingredients of our culture” (p. 192). People all over the world, however, reach information fast via technologies in a form of a powerful combination of images and sounds. In this era, it is inevitable that people use and create a wider set of literacy skills for producing messages and benefiting from the technological devices for understanding and analyzing the received messages.

Media, in fact, surround us inevitably affect our perception, particularly the ways in which we organize our ideas. For a person to be literate in the 21st century requires not only being able to read and write, but also being acquainted with media. Media literacy, in fact, has become a main part in the field of education, namely in teaching and learning languages. In this regard, Neal (2011) said, “Whether it is widely implemented or not in educational contexts, hypermedia pervades our lives and that of our students. As such, many composition and other writing classes include everything from writing Web sites to podcasts, blogs, wikis, social networking, digital video, and social bookmarking” (p. 93).

Literature Review

Introduction

Marzano, Pichering, and Polloch (2001) believe that “one of the best ways to learn a new word is to associate an image with it” (p. 126). Fox (2000) confirms that “an important focus of faculty development must be on the use of media literacy to teach print literacy” (p. 163). Similarly, several studies and researches confirm that students use language more effectively when they believe in what they are writing or speaking about. In contrast, students become helpless and ineffective users of language when they write or talk about something they do not believe in, are not interested in, or have no background about. Talking or writing about a death ceremony in the American culture, for example, without seeing a film or attending a death ceremony in reality seems difficult for international students even when they theoretically study about American death ceremonies in the classroom. International students, who come from different cultures, find themselves helpless to talk or write about this experience because they are guided and controlled by their deeply-rooted beliefs about death ceremonies in their own cultures.

It is not incapability of using English that hinders international students from talking or writing about that experience; rather, it is incapability of thinking of that experience without seeing it in reality or knowing about it through the media: TV, Internet, movies, and the like. Mayer (2003) argues that students learn more effectively from media that present both words and pictures than the media that present only words. This indicates that learners process visual and

verbal knowledge in their brain in different ways and creates different representations to the same reality.

Media

Dictionary defines “medium” as “an intervening means, instrument or agency”. This definition indicates that a medium is a channel that carries or transmits information. So, a medium is an instrument people use to send or receive a message. The dictionary defines “media” as the plural form of “medium.” Media, then, provide channels for transmitting representations and images about the reality in various versions. Thus, media have a great effect on shaping our understanding to the reality. The word, in its wider sense, include all channels of communication: television, radio, computer, internet, cinema, advertising, games, photography, video, recorded music, newspapers, books, magazines, and many others.

The concept “media”, in its wider sense, indicates the process of collecting, carrying, and delivering information through transmission channels. “Media”, in its narrow sense, indicates the process of transmitting messages through all electronic or digital devices, such as Internet, still images, animation, audio, mobile devices, interactive graphics, videos, software programs, and the like used to transmit messages. Media, in fact, have become an integral part in our life. Fox (2000) argues that media “influence what kids think about other types of people – how they imagine what others are like, how they respect differences in others, how they communicate with others, how they treat others” (p. 13).

Reid (1994) defines media as “all means of communication, whatever its format” (p. 51). So, media might include TV, video, movie, Internet, and the like. According to Masats, Dooly, and Costa (2009), media offer “learners the opportunity of observing the dynamics of interaction (discourse modes, gazes, gestures, registers, paralinguistic cues, etc.) in context” (p. 344). Gordon (2007) focuses on the role of media, namely video, in learning, and finds out that students enjoy learning languages through video (p. 189). Fox (2000) believes that media “is highly intertextual because it often borrows from other sources” (p. 181).

Yunus, Salehi, and John (2016) conduct a study on Malaysian students who learn English as a second language in Malaysia. They find out that using pictures and video projects are beneficial for learning English literature. They notice that using visual aids motivate students to read English texts with interest. Visual aids have proven to be a great tool for enriching and enhancing reading skills. Visual aids, in fact, provide authentic situations to the students to live the English culture and understand the English texts, accordingly. They, hence, recommend involving media in teaching and learning English.

Similarly, Frau-Meigs (2006) believes that media “play an important part in the socialization of young people, a phenomenon which has been gaining in momentum. A large part of the cultural capital of the planet is passed on to them

by many kinds of vehicles with which they are very familiar” (p. 7). Slethaug (2007) urges teachers to use different kinds of media in the classroom. Teachers should change the classroom into a cross-cultural classroom through media. Teachers, for example, can make the classroom an interesting place and film adaptation, so students are given “an opportunity to study some of the best examples of fiction and film, see how fiction leads to film, and consider the sort of choices that contribute to excellence” (p. 142).

When we talk about media, we necessarily talk about audience, or mass media to be more precise. Mass media imply that large audiences can reach the messages transmitted. Hooks (2010) argues that mass media are directed to audience in non-academic situation, which indicates that mass media seek to “simplify messages, so most of the complex academic issues involving diversity are never conveyed accurately or completely” (p. 106).

However, media, in its wider sense, include both digital and printed sources. So, a book is considered a kind of media as it transmitted information to audience. Yet, it reaches a small number of audience. The Internet is another kind of media, and it reaches a large number of audiences. This implies that each kind of media has its own audience and language. Television, for instance, uses language of images and sounds. Newspaper uses the language of pictures and written words.

Talking about kinds of media leads us to talk about what is called “multimedia”, which involve “the use of media such as audio and video equipment (VCRs, video disk players, video cameras), computers and related software, and Internet sources to do research, publish, and make classroom presentations” (Herrell and Jordan, 2008, p. 148). Multimedia representations in the classroom, according to Herrell and Jordan, help students share ideas and information with their peers. The use of visuals of many types of media “helps students and teachers to connect vocabulary and meaning, particularly for English learners” (p. 153).

Literacy

The concept “literacy” was used traditionally to refer to the ability of reading and writing. Hence, one is considered literal if he or she can read and write. Nowadays, the concept “literacy” has changed to cover not only ability to read and write, but also the ability to communicate with people in the community. The concept “literacy”, hence, covers all kinds of social relationships. Accordingly, literacy shifts from identifying and comprehending written messages into writing, reading, analyzing, inquiring, and evaluating all kinds of messages.

The concept “literacy”, in fact, has gained a lot of debates and conflicts between enlightenment and critical scholarship. Those who are advocate of seeing literacy as critical relationship believe that literacy is a process of empowering and democratizing people. They believe that thanks to democratic and critical approach to media literacy, people have become selective for the

messages they receive. This shift in the nature of people has shifted them from passive users of message into active ones. They shift to be not only receivers of messages, but also analyzers and evaluators of messages. They have become, also, participants in the messages received.

Literacy, nowadays, is associated with media. One is considered literate if he or she is able to understand, analyze, and evaluate the various languages of the messages transmitted either still or moving images, verbal sounds, or written codes. Media literacy, hence, empowers students to read not only printed materials, but also other symbolic codes of images and sounds. Media literacy, according Frau-Meigs (2006), “aims to develop both critical understanding and active participation. It enables young people to interpret and make informed judgments as consumers of media; but it also enables them to become producers of media in their own right” (p. 20).

Media Literacy

Fox (2000) argues that “a key principle of media literacy is that one sign or symbol can stand for something else” (p. 184). Hobbs (2008) claims that media literacy indicates one’s ability to access, analyze, evaluate, and communicate a variety of media messages through mass media. Accordingly, media literacy helps people to be both critical thinkers and creative producers of media messages for the sake of communicating ideas, thoughts, and emotions. Media literacy, hence, has expanded information and communication skill receptive to the changing nature of information in the community. Media literacy covers all facets of life; for example, it determines the skills students need in school, the competencies people need to use information at home, and the abilities workers need to be involved in the 21st centuries.

Alvarado (1981) highlights the importance of using media in school, claiming that two strands run through every classroom situation. These two strands are:

1) recognition of the power and importance of the structures of the present social formation and a recognition of the need for all people to work within those structures successfully, and 2) a recognition of the importance and potential power of all forms of oppositional knowledge and groupings. (p. 205)

Alvarado, in this context, puts the responsibility over teachers’ shoulders in school for providing students with specific skills to empower them not only to read and write, but also to be part of this multimedia cultural community. Of course, this requires teachers being media educators. In other words, teachers should be acquainted how to use technology themselves. In this regard, Shyamlee (2012) said, “With teachers’ instructions leading students’ thought patterns and motivating students’ emotions, the multimedia technology seeks integration of teaching and learning and provides the students greater incentives” (p. 152).

Media literacy, in general, is concerning with encoding and decoding the symbols and signs transmitted through media devices, synthesizing, analyzing, and producing informed messages. The Aspen Media Literacy Leadership Institute defines media literacy as “the ability to access, analyze, evaluate and create media in a variety of forms.” Of course, this definition indicates the use of critical thinking for analyzing and understanding the intended messages transmitted through media. This requires one being a media literate. The definition above, however, emphasizes the four components of media literacy, which are access, analysis, evaluation, and creation. These four components work equally in all media literacy channels. The four components might be presented as:

1. Access: Access works effectively through an active and social process, not a one-off act of facility. Establishing access permits users to develop their literacy and alert continuity of upgrading hardware and software programs.
2. Analysis: People’s involvement in print and audiovisual channels are based on a range of analytic competencies. The audiovisual domain requires understanding of the technologies, languages, representations, and audiences of the media used.
3. Evaluation: To work well, access and analysis require evaluation of the use of media devices and the language used for transmitting and conveying messages.
4. Creation: People reach a full understanding of the conventions and qualities of the message submitted if they have a good background about the content of the message. Henceforth, the media literacy provides people opportunities to create online content.

History of Using Media Literacy in Education

It is a matter of fact that we are living in the era of technology, which is characterized as 24/7 media. Youths, nowadays, spend much time in watching media. A recent study estimates that children from age eight to 18 spend almost eight hours a day with entertaining media outside of school. The study concludes that media is useful not only in entertaining children, but also in providing them with information. Rideout, Vandewater, and Wartella (2003) conduct a study regarding the impact of electronic media on infants. The participants of the study were six-year old and under infants. They find out that these infants spend almost two hours per day watching TV and videos.

Kendall (2005) argues that “when overall electronic media consumption, including television and radio programs, televised sports events, movies, videotapes, audio tapes and CDs, video games, and computer website materials, is taken into account, the typical person spends over three thousand hours per year as a consumer of media products” (p. 4). This indicates the importance of media in our life.

During its long history, media literacy have had various definitions, perceptions, and names. In England, for instance, the term “media education” has been used for media literacy to include the process of teaching and learning about media. It seems that the use of the term “education” in this context

indicates the importance of media as an educational technology through which people become able to understand media and be able to access, analyze, evaluate, and create messages in a wide variety of media, genres, and forms. The concept in this regard is concerned with developing people's critical and creative competencies regarding mass media, popular culture, and digital media. In 1994, The Center for Media Literacy's Beyond Blame curriculum was set up to include: knowledge literacy, copyright, Internet safety, digital knowledge, self-image, privacy, and security.

Media literacy, in fact, is old, dating back to the 1400s, the invention of printing. The Industrial Era witnessed the use of magazines and newspapers. Many educators believe that media literacy is the expansion form of literacy that results because of expansion of technology. The beginning of media literacy in education was in 1920s in former Russia. In 1930s, media literacy educators used Edgar Dale's movie in education. They used the movie to help students learn how to analyze the content of the movie critically.

The end of 1950s and beginning of 1960s witnessed the use of media literacy through encouraging seminars and conferences at high schools and universities in Europe. Media literacy in education was developed in the United States in 1950s and 1960s through using "film grammar" approach in schools. Media literacy educators used commercial movies in schools to teach new vocabulary. Students were encouraged to understand the new vocabulary through understanding the mode, tone, plot, and characters of movies exposed.

The end of 1970s and beginning of 1980s witnessed a positive shift towards using media literacy in education. Media literacy educators evoked English language teachers to use types of media, such as TV, movies, and others in addition to print to teach English. Project Censored Program began in 1976 for providing a model of learning service to help students learn through media in high schools and universities in the United States. Later, media literacy educators used media in practical and theoretical educational work and PhD programs.

In 1980s, media literacy educators' awareness of the role of media literacy in education increased, focusing mainly on the influence of media for shaping children's behavior. They used new concepts related to media literacy in educations, such as desensitization, aiming at assisting students to understand, analyze, and critically evaluate the messages transmitted through media. By the beginning of 1990s, all states involved visual, digital, and electronic media in their curriculum framework. In 1993, a group of advocates of media literacy in the United States developed a definition of media literacy as "the ability to access, analyze, evaluate and create messages in a wide variety of forms."

The focus on role of media literacy in education continued, focusing mainly on movies due to their great effects on people in general and students in specific. A study was conducted by the British Film Institute showed the importance of media literacy in education and recommended European countries to allocate school curricula based on media. In 1997, a group of schools in the

United Kingdom involved media arts, such as videogames, movies, animation, and comic scripts in their school curricula. In North America and Europe, media literacy is seen as an expanded conceptualization of literacy used for treating mass media, popular culture, and digital media as new shapes of texts that need analysis and evaluation.

In 2001, the UNESCO conducted a survey about involving media literacy in education. The survey was distributed on 72 experts in the field of media literacy (teachers, educational advisors, and policy makers) in 52 countries. The questionnaire covered mainly three key areas: media education in schools, partnerships, and the development of media education. The survey shows that media literacy concepts are integrated across the curriculum in almost all developed countries: the United States, Australia, New Zealand, Mexico, and Canada used media literacy in education as part of curriculum. For example, high school English teachers in the United States started using movies in teaching English in 2000s for helping students improve their critical thinking and communicative skills. In Ontario, Canada, media literacy in education is mandatory from 1st grade till 12th grade. Media literacy is involved in English literature and constitutes a quarter of every course in 10th, 11th, and 12th grades. In contrast, many developing countries lacked the use of media literacy in education.

Importance of Media Literacy in Education

The discussion above shows that media literacy is a 21st century approach to education that provides a scaffold for accessing, analyzing, evaluating, creating, and participating with information in various forms through channels as print, video, Internet, and the like. Media literacy seeks to achieve the relationship among textuality, competence, and power. Media literacy in education is essential as it is used for teaching students the skills associated with media literacy and builds a comprehension of the role of media in the community to alert them from consumers of information into users of information.

Hobbs (2005) emphasizes that media literacy helps students be aware of the outside world. Media provides students with representation of the world by using specific skills to critically analyze the messages received. Hence, media literacy encourages students to comprehend and contribute in classroom discussions about various topics. Media literacy engages students in learning and motivates them to make their voices heard. Kist (2005) emphasizes that students become “excited and engaged with reading and writing after their experience with media literacy in the classroom” (p. 103). Goodman (2003) calls media literacy as “the cultural triangle of fashion, sports and music” (p. 27), which indicates that media literacy evokes students to analyze the representations of the references in the external world.

Information in this media-saturated society is conveyed not only through printed materials, but also through sounds and images. So, media literacy has an

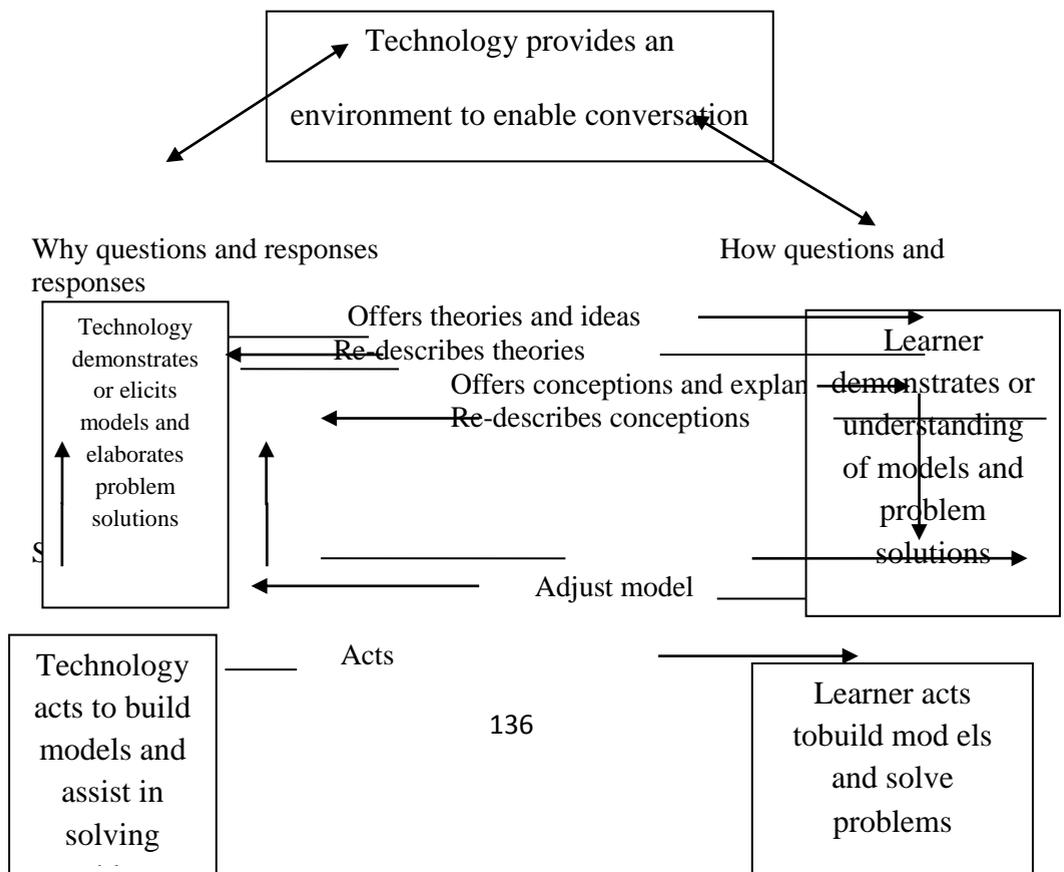
important role in this society as it helps students write and read audio/visual language fluently and easily, which provides them with power to be competitive in today's multimedia culture. In this vein, Buckingham (2003) claims that students nowadays "are increasingly participating in cultural and social worlds that are inaccessible, even incomprehensible to their parents." (p. 32).

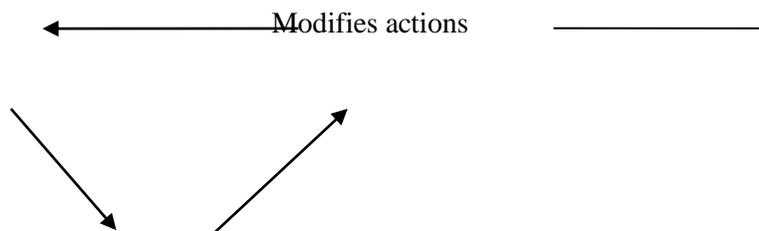
Buckingham, in fact, highlights the importance of media literacy in education through involving students in the today's multimedia culture. Media literacy in education is not only a form of protection, but also it is a form of preparation for students to understand, analyze, and think critically to evaluate the message. Media literacy in this context, based to Buckingham (2003), "aims to develop a more reflexive style of teaching and learning, in which students can reflect on their own activity both as 'readers' and as 'writers' of media texts, and understand the broader social and economic factors that are in play" (pp. 13-14).

Media literacy, also, is used in education for helping students become competent, critical thinkers, literate, and users of all forms of media in a way that they analyze and interpret the messages they receive from media channels. Media literacy in education helps students ask questions about what they watch, hear, and read. Accordingly, they critically analyze messages, expand their knowledge of media, and develop creative competencies in interpreting and creating messages. Through media literacy, however, students become able to identify authors' purpose and point of view, examine construction techniques and genres, evaluate patterns of media representation, find out purpose of messages, and explore structural features of media ownership.

Kist (2005) conducted a study regarding the importance of media literacy in education. He concludes that media literacy enhances social skills via providing students with opportunities to work collaboratively. Kist assigned 8th grade students in the Snow Lake School in Manitoba to complete an advertising project: a print ad, a radio ad, and an Internet ad. Thanks to media literacy, the students could complete their project assignment collaboratively. The students could transfer their in-school experience into out-school experience and show social interaction and ability to work collaboratively.

Goodman (2003) focuses on the role of media literacy in education through its role in changing the students' power of asking questions instead of answering. This, of course, enhances students' confidence in themselves to feel fully competent. Moreover, teachers build good relationships with their students through having information about their students' interests and trends. To know the role of technology in supporting conversational learning, Naismith, Lonsdale, Vavoula, and Sharples (2004, p. 16) provides the below diagram:





Critical Media Literacy Framework

Scharrer (2003) inquires including media literacy in K-12 curriculum. She emphasizes the role of media literacy in developing strategies for students to know how to create, market, and distribute messages. This, of course, enhances their confidence and abilities to participate in various kinds of media. Scharrer, in fact, encourages use of media literacy as a critical perspective that provides students good insights to be good users of different types of media. Scharrer gives highlights to what is called “critical media literacy”, which includes building counter-hegemonic alternative media accessible to a large number of people.

Critical media literacy has been involved in education for the sake of finding the relationships between media and students from one side and knowledge and power from the other side. Through such relationships, students will be able not only to critically analyze the messages received, but also to create new messages themselves. Critical media literacy enables students to comprehend the power structures of media through analyzing the messages transmitted. Critical media, in fact, helps students critically analyze central readings and symbols that lay behind media in order to comprehend the reality. Students become able to analyze and understand the messages transmitted from the image and create various meanings.

Critical media literacy in education, however, is essential as it helps students interpret, analyze, and evaluate the messages transmitted by media. Students become critical visual analysts to the messages received. In this regard, Kellner (2017) said, “The gaining of critical media literacy is an important resource for individuals and citizens in learning how to cope with a seductive cultural environment. Learning how to read, criticize, and resist sociocultural manipulation can help one empower oneself in relation to dominant forms of media and culture” (p. 7)

Torres and Mercado (2006) claim that critical media literacy involves three main dimensions, which are: (1) closely examining how corporate for-profit mainstream media work, in terms of economic, political, social, and

cultural power; (2) developing abilities and consciousness for searching, creating, developing, and supporting alternative nonprofit independent public-interest media; and (3) understanding the educators' responsibility to help students become critical-media's literate and actively engaged in alternative media use and development. (p. 261)

Some scholars proposed theoretical frameworks for critical media literacy. Hobbs (2008), for instance, presented three frameworks for introducing media literacy to learners as: (1) authors and audiences (AA), (2) messages and meanings (MM), and (3) representation and reality (RR). Hobbs, also, identified basic ideas of theoretical frameworks of media literacy in synthesizing the literature from media literacy, information literacy, visual literacy, and new literacy.

Buckingham (2003), similarly, presented four theoretical frameworks of critical media literacy as: (1) Production, which indicates to the texts made by individuals or working groups for themselves or others, (2) Language, which indicates to the medium used for transmitting the message, (3) Representation, which indicates the representation or imaginary of the reality, and (4) Audience, which indicates the targeted demographic audiences that use, interpret, and respond to media.

Share (2002) classifies approaches to critical media literacy into four areas as:

1. The protectionist approach, in which the audiences of mass media are seen as victims of the media, defenseless to cultural, ideological, or moral influences. Thus, they need protection by education.
2. The media arts education, which emphasizes the importance of producing various types of media by learners themselves.
3. The media literacy movement, which seeks to apply the old aspects of literacy based to the new types of media.
4. Critical media literacy, which seeks to include new concepts of literacy as culture, mass communication, and technology in education.

Conclusion

The discussion above shows us that media literacy has become an integral part in our life and an essential tool in education. Media literacy works to change students from passive consumers of useless messages into positive users of useful messages. In the 21st century, it has become a waste of time for families to turn off TV or Internet for protecting their children as there are a large number of tools nowadays that children use to contact the outside world. Media, in fact, are integrated in our culture, and they have a great effect on cultures to the extent that they become culture itself.

The literature review shows us that for one to be a media literate does not mean that one memorizes or consumes messages from media channels; rather, a media literate means that one raises inquiries, analyzes, and evaluates what is sent by media channels. For one to be a literate in the 21st century is to be part of

the technological environment, in which media dominate all facets of life. Media literacy creates a new way of learning, in which students are armed with tools and strategies to think critically and be part of the process of learning and teaching.

Methodology of the Study

Importance of the Study

The importance of this study emerges from the importance of media literacy in education. Based Inman and Horney (1997), “it’s been said that a picture is worth a thousand words” (p. 302), a video clip, a movie, an advertisement, or a picture would probably assist students to use language effectively and effortlessly. Visual, audio, and audio-visual aids might provide students with different ideas and perceptions to use language better. For example, seeing a picture of tears in a homeless child’s eyes motivate students to write a tragedy piece about homeless children’s suffering in life. Watching a 2-minute video clip about a miserable child, suffering from war is much more impressive than reading several books about agonies of wars. Hearing a mother, crying because of losing her children in an earthquake, provides students with lively inspirations to write several pieces about hardness of life and toughness of nature.

Problem of the Study

Fleckenstein (2002) said, “Imagery also plays a direct role in our teaching especially as it applies to empathy” (p. 18), and Rutledge (1994) said, “We lack curricula designed to help students understand media messages” (p. 209). These quotations refer to importance of media literacy from one side and challenging of media literacy in education from the other side. Rutledge’s quotation indicates explicitly that there is a problem represented in using media literacy in education. Studies and research regarding teaching and learning English in Libya show that one of the most challenges Libyan teachers and learners of English encounter is the use of media literacy in learning and teaching English.

In fact, using media literacy in education has been a challenge for countries. For the challenges of using media literacy in education, Neal (2011) said, “Perhaps one of the most challenging obstacles we face in implementing new writing and assessment technologies in our writing classes is ourselves, especially our lack of expertise and confidence in these new technologies that prevents us from allowing our students to explore new media literacy possibilities in their composing processes” (p. 126).

Neal refers to the challenges encountered by using media literacy in education, and Libya in no exception of this situation. In fact, use of media literacy in teaching and learning English as a foreign language is hardly used in Libyan schools and universities. Yet, some English language centers in Libya use

media literacy in teaching and learning English. Though the media used in classrooms are restricted to computers and records, in addition to books, as the participants of the study declare. So, the researcher sees that there is a problem that needs more investigation.

Questions of the Study

Research question, according to Marion (2004), is “a formal statement of the goal of a study” (para. 3). Research questions in this study attempt to shed light on the phenomenon that the study works to prove or investigate. To fulfill the objectives of this study, the researcher has posed the following question as the main question of the study: What do Libyan teachers of English report about their experiences in using media literacy in teaching and learning English in Libya? To investigate and answer the main question of this study, the researcher has posed other sub-questions that might be related directly or indirectly to the main question. These sub-questions are:

What kind of media Libyan teachers use in teaching English?

What challenges do Libyan teachers encounter while using media in teaching English in Libya?

What is the role of media in teaching English?

How do the participants learn English?

Methodology of the Study

Potter (1996) defines methodology as “a vision for what research is and how it should be conducted” (p. 50). A methodology is a tool a researcher uses to collect data and a technique to reach evidence. To fulfill the purposes of this study, the researcher has conducted the Qualitative Research Method, which “produces findings that are not arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other means of quantification” (Strauss and Corbin, 1990, p. 17). The researcher used Qualitative Research Method to understand the main questions of this study from the participants’ perceptions and how they would see the world around them. Meaning and interpretation of the reality were embedded in the participants’ experiences, and the researcher’s role was to get these meanings through his interpretation of the data obtained.

In this qualitative research study, the researcher used secondary resources based on literature review. As a primary resource, the researcher interviewed ten Libyan teachers of English, who are teaching English at three English language centers in Benghazi: University of Benghazi English Language Center, Kingdom of Education English Language Center, and Al-Kimma Al-Alia Training Center. The researcher interviewed the participants face-to-face.

Participants of the Study

Selecting the participants of the study is based on the context and the methodology of the study used (Hatch, 2002). For this study, the participants are ten Libyans—four males and six females—who are teaching English in English language centers in Benghazi. The participants were selected carefully to serve

the objectives of this study as: (1) they use a kind of media in teaching English; (2) they teach English in different levels; (3) they learned English in Libya; and (4) they are voluntarily willing to do the interviews and present their experience of using media in teaching and learning English in Libya. So, the participants had had almost similar background.

Objectives of this Study

The main objective of this study is to investigate about using media literacy in teaching and learning English in Libya. This study might be used as a good resource for Libyan authorities in the fields of English language learning and teaching. It might help these authorities to set up new strategies for using media literacy in teaching and learning English effectively in Libyan schools, universities, and English language centers.

Scope of the Study

The scope of this study was directed mainly to identifying the use of media literacy in teaching and learning English in Libya. The participants of the study comprise ten Libyan teachers, who are teaching English at English language centers in Benghazi. The study was conducted in Benghazi, Libya from the periods of August 1, 2017 to December 25, 2017.

Data Collection

The researcher had had face-to-face interviews, using a camera for recording the interviews. The interviews were conducted at the participants' institutes. The researcher gave pseudo names to the participants for confidentiality. The researcher, then, transcribed the participants' interviews and coded them into categories according to their relevance. Later, the researcher analyzed the coded data based on his own interpretation and perception to the topic of the study. The researcher reached findings through analyzing the participants' interviews and presented implications and recommendations based on the findings obtained.

Data Analysis

Babbie (2001) defines qualitative data analysis as: "the non-numerical assessment of observations made through participant observation, content analysis, in-depth interviews, and other qualitative research techniques" (p. 358). According to Merriam (1998), data analysis is "the process of making sense out of the data" (p. 178). Data analysis is a process for arranging the data according to specific arrangements to help researchers understand the data and present findings accordingly (Bogdan and Biklen, 1992, p. 153). To analyze the interviews, the researcher transcribed the interviews, read them thoroughly, and coded them according to their relevance to reach findings.

Findings

After analyzing the data obtained, the researcher has reached several findings. The findings reveal that most Libyan teachers lack use of media literacy in

education due to their being unqualified for using technological devices in teaching. The participants in this study attribute teachers' lack of using technology to lack of training. Jamal, one of the participants, said, "We don't have teacher's training in Libya. From time to time, they have lectures, and these lectures are not in the required standard for learning and teaching in the 21st century." Ziad thinks that "teachers need a lot of training regarding using technology in classroom." Ayoub believes that "learners don't have qualified trainers." Ahmed said, "Most of them [teachers] lack the training they need to teach English. Most of them were taught under very traditional methods, and they use these methods to teach English."

Nevertheless, Shadi thinks that Libyan teachers "are excused because they don't have as much training as [it] should be. So, if they have that much training, their overall levels will be increased and will be developed. But for the time being, they have a lot of problems, and they encountered a lot of challenges because of the lack of training." Ziad said, "Teachers are not very well trained to use technology, like computers, where they can integrate teaching foreign languages with computers or overhead projectors to provide their students with real materials or authentic real materials."

The findings emphasize the role of media literacy in teaching and learning English in Libya. As language is culture, and English language learners need to be engaged in real communicative situations, media might be a good way for providing the English culture into classrooms. In this study, nine participants learned English through media. Fouzi learned English through "listening to music and watching TV." About how he learned English, Ziad said, "I used to listen to the news too much. I used to follow the movies." Jamal said, "The things that make me like English, first listening to the Western songs. I tried to understand the words, the meanings of these words, and the connotations of these songs." Ayoub said, "I learn English by listening to music and watching movies." Also, Nuri said, "I didn't depend on school. I was listening to music, watching movies. So most of my English learning was using music and movies." Sami talked about his experience of learning English as:

I first started learning English at home with my dad. He received his PhD in English from the United States of America, so he was a very good help to me to learn English. We used to watch TV together. We used to watch English news like BBC, Sky News, lots of different kinds of English speaking, English programs and documentary news. So he used to ask me to paraphrase whatever we hear from the news or from English documentary.

The participants of the study emphasize the urgent need for media in teaching and learning English. They emphasize that media help learners understand the reality and create new knowledge. Media make learners educated and critical thinkers, which provide them more opportunities to be good users of English in communicative situations.

The data analysis of the study show that English language teachers in Libyan schools and universities ignore the use of media literacy in education, which results in gap between what is called ‘in school’ and ‘out school.’ They emphasize that they encounter challenges in using media literacy in their teaching English in classrooms. Jamal said, “I can’t use the Internet in classroom though we have Internet signals in the center.” Sami said, “We can’t use Internet or computers as most of times the light is off.”

Recommendations

Based to the findings obtained, the study presents the following recommendations:

Teachers should use media literacy to enhance teaching and learning English.

Media, namely the Internet, are used nowadays to shrink the gaps between school and reality. So, it has become a must that Libyan teachers of English be acquainted with how to use technology to teach English, and students need to be acquainted with how to use technology to learn English. According to Means and Haertel (2004) “technologies can support ways of learning that would otherwise be difficult to achieve” (p. 17). Shyamlee (2012) encourages teachers to involve technology in teaching because technology “provides so many options as making teaching interesting and also making teaching more productive in terms of improvements” (p. 150).

In a study regarding methods of teaching in Libya, Omar (2014) interviewed some of Libyan students that conducted their higher studies programs in the United States. Salem used to teach English in Libya, and he was teaching English in an English language center in the United States at the time of the interview. About his experience of using technology in learning and teaching English, he said:

I’ve never thought about technology except right now when I began teaching, and I find it very useful, especially for students. If you are teaching Arabic speakers that would be fine, but now I am teaching Chinese students, who speak Chinese, and I am speaking English and Arabic, but we use English to communicate with each other. So, suppose I was talking about ‘porch.’ Building a better community, one thing people can do just building porch in front of their houses, so people can stay outside and see neighbors. ‘What’s the porch, teacher? We don’t know. We don’t have that in our country, culture.’ So, I just show them ‘OK.’ Let’s google it, and show them many pictures. It’s very helpful! Students enjoy and love technology and I can use games, I can use pronunciations activities.

Teachers should use media literacy to create authentic situations in the classrooms.

Libyan teachers of English should use multiple technological devices in teaching English in order to provide authentic situations to learners. Authentic situations

provide students with opportunities to use the language in reality and share with native speakers what they have already learned in the classroom. Schmidt and Frota (1986) see that teachers should use media in classroom in order to involve students in authentic situations, where they practice the language with native speakers. Using the language with native speakers enables students to notice how language is used and notice the differences between their language and the language used by native speakers.

Being effective users of a foreign language, “all learners need many opportunities to use language with other people for real purposes” (Short, Harste, and Burke, 1996, p. 458). Teachers can use the Internet or encourage students to make functional conversations in different situations. Mousa, one of the participants in this study, recommends teachers to “use authentic sources like listening to CNN, BBC, and trying to copy some materials from English newspaper like New York Times and Guardian.”

Teachers should use media literacy in education to integrate language instruction with cultural settings.

Teachers should use media literacy to involve students in communicative situations.

Teachers should encourage students to be involved in communicative situations. Teachers should make use of communicative competence in language teaching and shift from structural language analysis to discourse language use. In other words, teachers should shift from linguistic competence to sociocultural competence, in which English is used communicatively in the classroom, where students imitate native speakers, talk with them, and take native speakers’ language proficiency as a target. Media, in fact, have become a main part in our life. In this regard, Neal (2011) said, “Whether it is widely implemented or not in educational contexts, hypermedia pervades our lives and that of our students. As such, many composition and other writing classes include everything from writing Web sites to podcasts, blogs, wikis, social networking, digital video, and social bookmarking” (p. 93).

School system should change to involve media literacy.

The school system in Libya in general should change to accommodate changes in the globalized world. Using media literacy in education enhances students’ learning and strengthens teachers’ methods of teaching. Media literacy connects students’ in-school experiences with their out-school ones. In this vein Buckingham (2003) emphasizes that “if media education is to help bridge the widening gap between the school and the world of children’s out-of-school experience, it must surely begin with the knowledge children already possess” (p. 34).

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Appendix A

Questions of the Interview

- How did you learn English?
- What is media?
- What kind of media are using as a teacher in classroom?
- What kind of media were you used when you were a learner?
- What challenges are you encountering regarding using media in classroom?
- What is the most effective kind of media you are using as a teacher?
- What is the most effective kind of media you used while you were a learner?
- How do you evaluate the use of media in teaching and learning English in Libya?
- What is media literacy?
- How can you use media literacy in teaching English in classroom?
- What are your comments and recommendations regarding using media in teaching and learning English in Libya?

**Recherche-action auprès d'un public jeune :
Développer des compétences psychosociales visant à développer l'esprit
critique**

**Sylvie Pierre
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Notre étude porte sur une démarche partagée et territorialisée sur la question de la sante des jeunes, sous forme d'une étude-action en lien avec les acteurs et

partenaires d'institutions d'insertion, et avec le soutien de l'Université de Lorraine, du réseau des universités pour l'éducation à la santé (UNIRÉS) et de l'École de Santé Publique. L'objectif est de mettre en œuvre une programmation d'actions à partir des résultats.

Les partenaires impliqués dans l'étude sont les jeunes eux-mêmes, la Mission Locale et la Maison de l'emploi du Grand Nancy, l'Université de Lorraine, UNIRÉS, l'École de santé publique, la Métropole du Grand Nancy, les Collectivités Locales et Territoriales, les Partenaires de la formation, du logement, de la prévention et les Partenaires économiques. Il s'agit avant tout ici d'explorer le thème de la santé des jeunes en recueillant leurs représentations, leurs connaissances et leurs compétences psychosociales, relatives aux différents aspects de la santé.

Notre étude s'appuie sur un ensemble de concepts relatifs à la santé. Dans la littérature, le **concept de santé** est variable et plusieurs acceptions coexistent : santé biopsychosociale (état de complet bien-être physique, mental et social) suivant la définition de l'Organisation mondiale de la santé (OMS) (1) ; santé comme absence de maladie (modèle biomédical) ; santé comme état biologique souhaitable (physique et mental) ; santé comme capacité « à mobiliser les ressources personnelles (physiques et mentales) et sociales en vue de répondre aux nécessités de la vie » (2)(3).

Une **représentation** est toujours constituée par l'interaction dynamique d'éléments : cognitifs (ce que je sais), affectifs (ce que j'aime) et conatifs (ce qui me vient de l'environnement). La constitution d'une représentation va influencer les attitudes, les préjugés et les comportements de chacun. « Les **compétences psychosociales** sont la capacité d'une personne à répondre avec efficacité aux épreuves de la vie quotidienne. C'est l'aptitude d'une personne à maintenir un état de bien-être mental en adaptant un comportement approprié. Les compétences psychosociales ont un rôle important à jouer dans la promotion de la santé en termes de bien-être physique, mental et social, essentiellement quand les problèmes de santé sont liés à un comportement, et que celui-ci est lié à une incapacité à répondre efficacement au stress. »(4)

La **promotion de la santé** est « toute combinaison d'actions planifiées de type éducatif, politique, législatif ou organisationnel appuyant des habitudes de vie et des conditions de vie favorables à la santé d'individus. »(5) La promotion de la santé soutient le développement individuel et social en offrant des informations, en assurant l'éducation pour la santé et en perfectionnant les aptitudes indispensables à la vie, permettant ainsi aux individus d'exercer un contrôle sur leur propre santé. Cette démarche doit être accomplie dans les différents lieux de vie des personnes : école, foyers, travail, etc.(6)

L'**éducation pour la santé** a été définie par l'OMS comme « tout ensemble d'activités d'information et d'éducation visant à encourager l'adoption de comportements favorables à la santé. [...] Par l'éducation pour la santé, on aide les gens à élucider leur propre comportement et à voir comment ce

comportement influence leur état de sante. On les encourage a faire leurs propres choix pour une vie plus saine. [...] L'éducation pour la santé ne remplit pleinement sa fonction que si elle encourage les gens a participer et a choisir eux-mêmes »(7)

Ainsi que cela a été défini dans le Plan national d'éducation pour la sante (8), « l'éducation pour la sante a pour but que chaque citoyen acquière tout au long de sa vie les compétences et les moyens qui lui permettront de promouvoir sa santé et sa qualité de vie ainsi que celles de la collectivité ».

L'**estime de soi** se définit en termes d'évaluations générales qu'entretient une personne sur elle-même. Dans cette perspective, le modèle de Harter(9) conçoit l'estime de soi comme comportant des dimensions de satisfaction personnelle et de jugement de l'efficacité de son fonctionnement. Il s'agit d'une attitude d'approbation ou de désapprobation envers soi, qui indique la valeur et la compétence que s'attribue la personne dans différents domaines. Ce sont ces paramètres qui figurent dans l'étude.

La notion de « **confiance en soi** », que l'on peut assimiler a une composante partielle de l'estime de soi, désigne ainsi le sentiment subjectif d'être ou non capable de réussir ce qu'il

entreprend. La plupart des études soulignent que les sujets a basse estime de soi s'engagent

avec beaucoup de prudence et de réticences dans l'action et renoncent plus vite en cas de

difficultés (10). Pour les psychiatres, la jeunesse est le moment ou ceux qui sont le plus en

insécurité ont une mauvaise estime d'eux-mêmes et n'ont pas confiance en eux. Ils vont

être en attente de recevoir de l'extérieur, notamment de leurs les parents et des adultes,

cette sécurité faite d'éléments très imprécis qui vont les remplir, avec la sexualisation que

génère inévitablement une telle attente aussi.(11)

Notre démarche comprend plusieurs phases : Professionnalisation des acteurs du territoire

: information et sensibilisation des acteurs de l'insertion des jeunes pour les impliquer, et

formation a l'évolution de la sante et a ses concepts (approche estime de soi, bien-etre...);

Diagnostic aupres d'un panel de jeunes et traitement des donnees recueillies. Appui

methodologique assure par l'Universite de Lorraine, l'Ecole de sante Publique et UNIREs :

Analyse partenariale et diffusion des resultats de l'enquete et des conclusions partagees,
definition de priorites et de strategies pour la programmation d'actions specifiques.

Le questionnaire comprend 7 parties thematiques :

La partie A etait la seule partie remplie par le charge d'accueil (lieu d'habitation, dispositif, MDPH).

La partie B renseignait les donnees personnelles (sexe, age, formation, association).

La partie C posait des questions generales (representation de sa sante, niveau d'information, pratiques informationnelles, recours aux services de sante, connaissance des

structures, capacite a gerer le stress, estime de soi.

La partie D portait sur l'education nutritionnelle et l'activite physique.

La partie E portait sur l'education sexuelle et l'hygiene corporelle.

La partie F portait sur les conduites a risques.

La partie G s'interessait aux competences psychosociales.

Au total, 256 questionnaires, soit 4.33% de la population totale, ont ete renseignes.

3

Le questionnaire a eu pour objectif de recueillir des donnees quantitatives, descriptives et

explicatives, sur plusieurs domaines : « representations et conceptions de la sante », du

« savoir », « concept de soi », « competences psycho-sociales », habitudes de vie, milieux

de vie, capacite a resister a la pression de son environnement.

4

Il n'a pas ete question de denbrer des facteurs de risques ou des usages, mais bien de

caracteriser la perception par le jeune public de sa sante, ses pratiques et ses capacites

psychosociales.

Nous nous attacherons a presenter des resultats significatifs au vue de la question des

pratiques informationnelles et communicationnelles. Concernant le niveau d'information

et pratiques informationnelles, plus de 60% des individus ont le sentiment d'etre suffisamment formes/informes au sujet de la sante.

Ces resultats varient selon l'age. La majorite des 17 ans et moins et des 18-25 ans ont le

sentiment d'être formé/informé. Cela pourrait s'expliquer par le fait qu'ils ont quitté le

système éducatif obligatoire depuis moins longtemps.

Le nombre significatif de jeunes qui ne se prononcent pas est à souligner : 21,9% pour les

18-21 ans et 16,9% pour les 22-25 ans.

La majorité des jeunes répond avoir le sentiment d'être formé/informé. Il faut cependant

distinguer « avoir le sentiment » et « être informé » : près de 70% répondent ne pas savoir

le nombre de calories quotidienne qui leur est nécessaire. Seules 43 personnes ont répondu

à la question ce qui montre une méconnaissance dans le domaine des besoins alimentaires.

La grande majorité des garçons qui ont répondu ont une réponse exacte conforme aux

normes.

Seulement un tiers des filles ont répondu juste à la question. Plus du tiers répondent en

sous-estimant les besoins.

Concernant l'activité physique hebdomadaire recommandée, 80,5% des individus ne

répondent pas conformément aux normes édictées(14) et moins de la moitié pratique

régulièrement une activité physique. 8,20% pensent qu'il n'y a pas d'activité physique

minimale recommandée.

Ces résultats montrent une méconnaissance dans le domaine de l'activité physique malgré

l'information faite durant leur scolarité et dans les médias.(15) (16)

Concernant les stratégies de recherche d'information en matière de santé, plus du tiers

déclare rechercher l'information sur internet : 89,0% sur les sites, 64,0% sur les forums et

15,0% sur les réseaux sociaux.

Pres de la moitié des filles et un tiers des garçons recherchent l'information sur internet.

Internet est considéré comme une source d'information pour plus de la moitié 18-21 et 22-

25 ans.

Le recours à internet pour rechercher l'information en matière de santé augmente avec le

niveau de diplome : deux fois plus d'individus \geq BAC y ont recours contre 24,2%

Brevet/CAP/BEP. Chez les non diplomes, moins d'un quart cherche l'information sur

internet. Un fort pourcentage (40,9%) de non reponses est a noter.

Plus des trois quarts des individus qui cherchent l'information sur internet ne declarent pas

d'impact sur leur niveau de connaissance.

Pres du tiers des individus qui consultent internet declarent ne pas y etre formes/informes.

Les strategies de recherche operees par les jeunes seraient aussi a connaitre de maniere

plus fine afin de connaitre la nature des sites consultes et leur pertinence(20).

Un tiers des individus pense qu'internet a influence ses comportements. Les filles sont plus

critiques vis-a-vis de l'information sur internet.

L'influence de l'information trouvee sur internet sur les comportements est plus frequente

chez les plus jeunes (la moitie des 17ans et moins, un tiers dans les autres tranches d'age).

Pres de la moitie des 18-21 ans pensent que cela n'a aucune influence.

Devant le fort taux de non reponse observe (la moitie des 17ans et moins, un tiers des 22-

25ans), il serait necessaire d'interroger les jeunes afin de connaitre plus finement leurs

pratiques.

Pres d'un quart des individus pensent que l'information sur internet est fiable.

On retrouve la meme proportion pour ceux qui ne sont pas d'accord. Les filles sont plus

mefiantes.

5

Plus de 40% des 17 ans et moins a 22-25 ans ne se prononcent pas ce qui est un pourcentage

eleve. On peut faire l'hypothese que les individus n'ont pas une bonne connaissance de ce

que represente l'information sur internet ce qui ne leur permet pas d'evaluer la confiance

qu'on peut lui attribuer.(21) Chez les 18-25 ans, un quart environ accorde sa confiance a

internet mais autant adopte une attitude inverse.

Au sein de la population generale, pres de la moitie (43,5%) des individus accordent leur

confiance a internet. 40,3% adoptent une attitude mefiante.

Ces reponses illustrent un manque de connaissance vis-a-vis de l'outil qui peut expliquer qu'un nombre tres significatif ne se positionne pas (60% ne se prononcent pas et 45,5% n'ont pas repondu).

L'usage quotidien de la TV du net et du telephone portable sont declares par plus de la moitie des jeunes. En revanche la lecture de la presse ecrite n'est revendiquee que par un tiers des jeunes.

La TV est regardee en moyenne 3,7 heures (duree mediane : 2h), le net 5,5 heures (duree mediane : 3 heures) et le telephone portable 7,8 heures (duree mediane : 4 heures). Pour la presse ecrite la duree indiquee est de 45 minutes en moyenne (mediane a 30 minutes).

Cette proportion pourrait alerter dans la mesure ou l'on sait que la qualite et la validite des informations sur la sante sur Internet sont extremement variables. Toutefois, le fait de trouver l'information credible n'est pas un gage de validite reelle de l'information en question.

La question des competences psychosociales merite aussi d'etre abordee. Plus de la moitie des individus se sentent capable de resoudre des problemes face a une situation nouvelle.

Seuls 7,81% ne se sentent pas capables d'y repondre. Pres d'un quart n'a pas repondu, ce

qui peut etre cause par l'interpretation difficile du terme « probleme ».

Plus d'un individu sur deux declarent savoir prendre la parole en groupe.

Plus de la moitie affirment savoir argumenter dans un groupe.

14,5% declarent qu'ils ont du mal a affirmer une position contraire au groupe.

Moins de la moitie declare se sentir a l'aise dans un groupe.

Un quart declare avoir peur du regard des autres dans un groupe.

Concernant cette section, pres d'un jeune sur cinq n'a pas repondu a chacune des questions.

L'influence de l'entourage joue pour un individu sur deux sur sa facon de manger et sur pres

d'un tiers pour l'activite physique.

Un quart des individus declarent que les medias ont une influence sur leur facon de manger.

Un tiers considère qu'elle est nulle. Un quart des individus déclarent que les médias ont une influence sur leur activité physique. Un quart considère qu'elle est nulle. Un tiers des jeunes ne parlent pas de leur santé à leur entourage. Cependant, plus de la moitié en parle ce qui montre un intérêt pour le sujet et une capacité à communiquer avec son entourage. Parmi ceux qui ont répondu « non », 70% déclarent manquer de confiance en eux et 20% n'osent pas demander de l'aide. Pres des trois quarts des individus sont prêts à changer leurs habitudes si cela est favorable à leur santé. 40,6% déclare avoir besoin d'aide, ce qui confirme la nécessité d'accompagner les jeunes. Seuls 10,5% déclarent qu'ils ne changeraient pas leur habitude juste pour leur santé. 20% n'ont pas répondu. Certains points saillants peuvent être soulignés montrant une faible estime de soi chez de nombreux jeunes : la moitié des jeunes se sent inutile, 30% sentent peu de raisons d'être fier de soi.

Discussion

6

La présente étude-action inscrit ses analyses et recommandations dans le domaine de la santé entendue au sens le plus large : formation et renforcement des aptitudes, communication et sensibilisation du public jeune... Le tout a vocation à proposer un programme d'éducation et de bien-être axé sur l'information, l'éducation et la prévention.

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**Proposition à l'appel à communication Colloque International en
Éducation Meilleur Éducation pour Meilleur Avenir Organisé par
l'Université de Misurata - Libye (28 et 29 mars 2018)**

Notice biographique :

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Titre :

**L'intégration des TICE pour l'entraînement à la production de
l'oral dans une classe de FLE : outils et pratiques**

Le paysage éducatif présent est marqué par la progression fulgurante d'Internet proposant un nombre important de documents, de ressources et d'outils. De nos jours, le web 2.0 s'est popularisé grâce à ses nombreux avantages didactiques dans le sens où celui-ci facilite la communication, la coopération, l'échange, l'interaction et le partage des savoirs au point que des notions telles que l'intelligence collective prennent forme. Pour ce qui concerne l'enseignement du FLE, le web 2.0 est un terrain propice de par les multiples opportunités que celui-ci offre à la fois aux enseignants et aux apprenants, impactant ainsi leur relations et leurs compétences.

L'utilisation d'Internet à des fins pédagogiques s'est considérablement répandue dans les universités. Aujourd'hui, il n'est pas rare d'avoir recours à des ressources et autres outils connectés pour assister l'enseignement et ainsi permettre un accès à l'information facilité, une communication active entre enseignants et apprenants notamment via les portails universitaires, les bibliothèques électroniques, les bases de données, les blogs etc. Cette influence des nouvelles technologies sur les pratiques didactiques est telle qu'à la notion de Web 2.0 vient s'ajouter la notion d'E-Learning (DOWNES, 2005).

Les opportunités d'usage et d'apprentissage offertes par le web sont essentielles pour l'enseignement d'une langue étrangère. Dorénavant, il est tout à fait concevable que deux ou plusieurs apprenants de différents établissements scolaires entrent en contact et communiquent autour d'un projet commun, ou d'accroître ses compétences à l'oral par l'usage de l'audio ou le visionnage de vidéos en streaming en classe de FLE. De même, certaines pratiques se modernisent : l'écriture peut devenir collaborative, le dialogue ou la correction écrite et orale peuvent s'automatiser.

1.1. Compétences TICE, directives européennes et apprentissage des langues

L'UNESCO a publié trois brochures sur le thème de l'usage des nouvelles technologies et sur l'exigence de communication et de collaboration dans les nouveaux environnements éducatifs (UNESCO, 2008). Cette entreprise d'élaboration de normes et de cadres en matière de compétences TIC pour les enseignants a pour but une initiation technologique (maîtrise des outils informatique et des ressources TIC élémentaires tels que logiciels de présentation et d'édition de textes, des moteurs de recherche Internet, etc. Cette initiative vise également à approfondir les connaissances déjà acquises en TIC en assimilant les nouvelles pratiques utilisant les TIC. En effet, il est question de savoir développer et créer du matériel pédagogique en ligne, de gérer les activités et les projets collaboratifs impliquant la classe ou d'encourager la communication et la coopération entre les apprenants par le biais d'un blog, d'un portail éducatif, d'une page Wiki ou d'un réseau social à visée éducative.

En 2001, le Cadre Européen Commun de Référence pour les Langues (CECRL) émanant du Conseil de l'Europe insiste sur la prégnance de la communication dans l'apprentissage d'une langue. Ce cadre dresse la liste des compétences et connaissances requises pour la maîtrise d'une langue et fixe des niveaux de qualification permettant de mesurer les progrès de l'apprenant tout au long de son apprentissage. Les niveaux se définissent sur la base des compétences à acquérir : écouter, parler, lire et écrire dans la langue cible. Le cadre précise également les activités langagières de communication que sont : Activités de production, activités de réception, activités d'interaction et stratégies et activités de médiation et stratégies.

La présente étude se concentre sur l'apprentissage des langues assisté par ordinateur qui recouvre diverses dimensions que sont les aspects épistémologiques, le développement de méthodes, l'exploitation pédagogique des outils audiovisuels, l'apprentissage en interaction ainsi que les interactions interculturelles. Etant donné que la popularisation de la communication connectée peut être appréhendée à travers le prisme didactique ou de la production dans le discours, il s'agit davantage ici de se pencher sur la compréhension et la production à l'oral via les blogs éducatifs et dans les projets de télécollaboration tels que « *Le français en première ligne* ».

1.2. la pédagogie active avec les TICE

Le CECRL s'inscrit dans une dimension actionnelle. En effet, communiquer via une langue et la parler équivaut à agir sur le réel. La réalisation de tâches langagières ayant pour but une communication explicite pose les jalons de l'apprentissage. Les TICE jouent un rôle prépondérant dans l'apprentissage actif et articulé autour de tâches.

Un apprentissage encadré et assisté par ordinateur bien conçu permet l'accès à un grand nombre d'informations, d'échanges et de retours. Ainsi, un apprentissage connecté et se basant sur les TICE sera souvent synonyme d'informations et d'interactions accrues.

Certains chercheurs dans le domaine de la didactique des langues ont mis en évidence l'efficacité d'une pédagogie basée sur la réalisation de tâches pour l'intégration des TICE dans les classes. (MANGENOT, 2003) souligne que : « *La tâche ou le scénario pédagogique incluent une ou des activités faisant sens pour les apprenants, s'appuient sur des ressources et prennent en compte le dispositif spatio-temporel et humain, à la fois en termes de communication et d'accompagnement pédagogique* ».

(OLIVER et HERRINGTON, 2001) expliquent que « *les tâches d'apprentissage constituent l'élément charnière dans le processus de conception de dispositifs constructivistes d'apprentissage en ligne* ». Dans ces situations pédagogiques, de nombreuses tâches sont proposées selon la typologie dressée par (MANGENOT, 2003) et qui comprend la fouille collective, la discussion, la résolution de problèmes, l'examen critique, l'élaboration de ressources pédagogiques, et l'étude de cas. Il est possible d'adjoindre le concept de « projet pédagogique » développé par (MANGENOT, 2005) et qui peut se définir comme étant : « un ensemble de tâches amenant des apprenants distants à communiquer entre eux. Généralement les projets pédagogiques se font entre classes ou groupes d'étudiants de pays différents afin de favoriser les échanges linguistiques et culturels ».

En vue de privilégier la compréhension et la production à l'oral pour les apprenants en français langue étrangère, la présente démonstration s'est attelée aux tâches audiovisuelles des sites éducatifs et aux projets de télécollaboration. Les recherches effectuées sur la fonction des tâches, des scénarios, et des projets pédagogiques au cœur d'un dispositif mixte entre du présentiel et du distanciel conduisent à travailler sur diverses tâches telles que : les tâches sur les découvertes interculturelles, les tâches lexicales, grammaticales et d'orthographe, les tâches d'enregistrement des séquences audio/vidéo en ligne, les tâches audiovisuelles de correction phonétique. Les tâches de collaboration entre apprenants et les tâches de compréhension et production à l'oral...

1.3. Les caractéristiques des blogs/sites éducatifs en classe de FLE

Divers auteurs ont évoqué les capacités pédagogiques des blogs consacrés à l'éducation. En voici, listées ci-dessous, les caractéristiques les plus importantes :

- L'utilisation des blogs est très simple et leur introduction dans divers contextes est facile : plate-forme intuitive, édition et publication de textes sur Internet, dialogues possibles via des commentaires.
- Les blogs constituent des outils dynamiques qui encouragent la création et stimulent la motivation chez les apprenants, ainsi qu'une communication authentique. Ceux-ci peuvent également renforcer le travail collaboratif en classe.

- Les blogs éducatifs permettent l'introduction d'activités et de tâches pédagogiques dans un environnement réel de communication et la conception de projets de télécollaboration ou d'échanges entre classes (TOME, 2007).
- Le recours aux blogs éducatifs transforme les relations entre l'enseignant et les apprenants, en intégrant de nouvelles situations pédagogiques pour la classe (TOME, 2007).

En 2003, CAMPBELL a établi une division en trois pans des blogs éducatifs consacrés à l'enseignement des langues : tout d'abord, le blog de l'enseignant-tuteur dans lequel ce dernier hiérarchise le contenu de ses cours, puis le blog de l'apprenant dont la rédaction est prise en charge par un ou plusieurs enseignants-tuteurs, enfin le blog de la classe qui est le fruit de la coopération entre l'ensemble de la classe et l'enseignant-tuteur sous forme de projets pédagogiques, de création de blogs .

Cependant, la majorité des blogs éducatifs référencés dans le domaine de l'enseignement du FLE se concentrent sur une pédagogie portant sur la compréhension et la production à l'écrit. En résulte une certaine extension du blog tenu par l'enseignant notamment via la publication de fichiers audio à télécharger. Néanmoins, peu de cas est fait des stratégies en rapport avec les productions orales dans les blogs pédagogiques. Ceci explique que les recherches et autres expériences actuelles avec les blogs en classe de FLE s'appuient sur la compréhension et la production à l'oral. Comme le soulignent les directives européennes pour l'éducation, la maîtrise des compétences orales est essentielle pour la communication linguistique et l'enseignement des langues. Les concepts récents développés en éducation, le rôle des TIC dans l'apprentissage des langues et l'introduction de celles-ci en classe sur base d'une pédagogie fondée sur la réalisation de tâches (UNESCO, 2008).

1.4. Les réseaux sociaux éducatifs comme outils pour la production orale :

Les opportunités et fonctionnalités offertes par le web et les réseaux sociaux sont multiples pour la production orale. En effet, celles-ci peuvent être audio ou vidéo ce qui élargit considérablement le champ des possibles. Les recherches effectuées dans le domaine de la didactique les ont déplacées vers des pratiques pédagogiques propres à l'enseignement et à l'apprentissage du FLE. Depuis une décennie, de nombreuses recherches sont conduites dans de grandes universités parmi lesquelles l'Université de Grenoble-France, Montréal-Canada etc. Dans le but de faciliter la compréhension et la production à l'oral chez les apprenants de FLE, les diverses expériences hébergeurs telles que les blogs audio et/ou vidéo ont été recensées en fonction de l'usage des plus marquants d'entre eux :

-*Moodle* est une interface d'apprentissage en ligne sous licence open source, dont l'objectif est de créer des groupes d'apprenants se rassemblant autour de contenus et d'activités pédagogiques. Ce système de gestion de contenu propose de remarquables fonctions pour la communication afin de créer un environnement d'apprentissage en ligne et d'encourager les interactions entre des

pédagogues, des apprenants et des ressources pédagogiques. Ce système d'éducation à distance peut aussi s'identifier comme un dispositif de formation ouverte et à distance (FOAD), ou comme un environnement d'apprentissage médiatisé. La fonction « Forum » est particulièrement usitée dans la mesure où cette rubrique permet l'établissement d'une communication fluide via l'envoi et la réception de messages rédigés (tâches, questions, ou informations) et de fichiers joints (textes, images, audio ou vidéo).

- *YouTube, Dailymotion*, sont des sites de partage de vidéos qui rendent possible la publication de vidéos incluant des textes de présentation ou d'explication à l'instar des textes des blogs. La plate-forme intègre également une fonction « Commentaires » qui permet une interaction. Il est possible de considérer le blog vidéo « Dailymotion Campus » comme un blog de classe qui archive les diverses tâches pédagogiques sous forme de vidéo à destination des apprenants et qui recense les travaux de collaboration réalisés dans la salle informatique.

- le site *Podomatic.com* est un hébergeur de blogs audio également appelés podcasts qui permet de rédiger des messages écrits intégrant des contenus sonores et d'enregistrer ou de télécharger des fichiers audio ou vidéo.

- *Glogster* ce site permet de publier des posters multimédia, on peut déposer des images des vidéos ou autres. On peut présenter des documents à ses apprenants, les aider à préparer des tests ou tout simplement préparer des supports d'exposés.

- *UStream TV* (<http://www.ustream.tv>) est un site de partage d'émissions vidéo en direct qui retransmet des séquences vidéo à partir d'une simple connexion par webcam, ce qui permet la tenue de conférences ou la diffusion d'émissions de télévision par Internet. Cette plate-forme est très utile pour nouer des contacts entre étudiants d'universités différentes qui désirent collaborer sur un même projet (à l'instar du projet León – Grenoble) mais aussi pour télécharger des vidéos portant sur les activités pédagogiques tournées par les apprenants. Les préparatifs et le tournage de ces vidéos encouragent le développement de situations communicationnelles véritables au cours desquelles les apprenants mettent à jour leurs connaissances langagières, coopèrent et structurent leur pensée dans une langue étrangère.

- Le site *Padlet*, propose des murs vides sur lesquels il est possible de déposer des documents de toutes sortes : Microsoft, Open Office, PDF, mais aussi des liens, des vidéos et des enregistrements audio. La simplicité avec laquelle on peut déposer les productions, invite à utiliser cet outil pour enregistrer les productions orales et à les présenter en un même lieu Internet. Etant donné que la plupart des apprenants ont un smartphone, il est possible de leur demander d'enregistrer leur production orale et de la déposer sur le mur créé pour cette activité et pour la classe : il suffit d'envoyer auparavant à la classe l'adresse padlet qu'il faudra utiliser.

- le site *Pearltrees* permet d'organiser puis de partager les "perles" que nous trouvons sur le net. C'est sympathique et collaboratif. Quelques usages pédagogiques possibles: constitution d'un Pearltree de ressources à mettre à

disposition des apprenants, constitution de dossiers d'actualité thématiques, ou comme outil collaboratif de préparation d'exposés.

-le site *Jamglue* est une application en ligne qui porte sur la musique. Cette plateforme offre l'opportunité d'enregistrer ou d'analyser des séquences audio par le biais d'un magnétophone web et une palette de mixage performants. Le contournement de cette application à des fins pédagogiques afin d'exercer les apprenants en FLE à l'oral permet d'enregistrer de courts passages audio pour réaliser quelques tâches, des scénarios ou des projets en français.

1.1. Projets de télécollaboration avec les TIC et productions orales

Quelques recherches se sont penchées sur la communication médiatisée par ordinateur (CMO) pour analyser les usages communicationnels médiatisés effectués en réseau et la didactique des langues sans oublier l'aspect interculturel des échanges entre apprenants. Bien qu'il soit possible de constater des orientations divergentes en fonction des projets portant sur la production langagière, la conscience interculturelle ou les échanges langagiers, l'apprentissage efficace d'une langue étrangère ne peut dissocier ces trois dimensions fondamentales que sont la langue, la communication, et la culture. Nous essayerons de présenter trois projets distincts de télécollaboration en ligne impliquant des étudiants issus d'universités différentes.

Le premier projet dont il est question afin de mettre en évidence une télécollaboration entre étudiants éloignés géographiquement est « *Cultura* ». Né en 1997 sous l'impulsion de FURSTENBERG, WARYN et LEVET au sein du département Foreign Languages and Literature du Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Ce projet se définit comme « *une approche comparative interculturelle qui permet à des étudiants français et américains d'élaborer progressivement et collaborativement leur connaissance et leur compréhension des valeurs, attitudes et croyances inhérentes à l'autre culture, en un processus dynamique et interactif de construction réciproque* » (FURSTENBERG *et al.*, 2001). Ce programme met en contact deux groupes d'apprenants du même niveau (deux lycéens ou deux étudiants) qui expriment le désir de travailler en coopération sur les mêmes matériaux ou interagissent via des forums et en particulier sur la compréhension et la production écrites.

Le deuxième projet nommé « *Le français en (première) ligne* » élaboré en 2002 par l'action conjointe de DEVELLOTTE et MANGENOT découle d'un partenariat à l'initiative de l'université de Sydney, l'université de Franche-Comté, l'Ecole Normale Supérieure en Lettres et Sciences Modernes de Lyon, l'université Stendhal Grenoble, l'université Monash de Melbourne, l'université de Lettonie, l'université de Chypre, l'université de León en Espagne, l'université Sophia de Tokyo, le Northern Virginia Community College et la University of California Berkeley des Etats-Unis, Université de Curitiba (Brésil) etc.

L'ambition d'un tel projet est de permettre à un grand nombre d'étudiants en master FLE en France de communiquer par Internet avec d'autres étudiants de licence ou Master d'autres pays inscrits en cours de français. Contrairement à

l'objectif de la majorité des projets menés en télécollaboration, celui-ci n'ambitionne pas de mettre en contact deux apprenants qui partagent le même statut ou les mêmes visées. Les étudiants de FLE souhaitent exercer et pratiquer ce qui a été vu au cours de l'enseignement théorique mais aussi accroître leurs compétences en TICE. De leur côté, les étudiants étrangers souhaitent établir un contact avec des natifs ou quasi natifs de la langue étudiée. Cette prise de contact vise à s'entraîner et pratiquer la langue via une discussion ou un échange plus authentique que les dialogues de classe et de les confronter, de par l'échange avec les étudiants de FLE, à la réalité francophone contemporaine (DEVELOTTE et MANGENOT, 2007).

Dans le cadre de ce projet, les interactions se font sur un mode généralement asynchrone par le biais d'une interface d'enseignement et les tâches effectuées vont dans le sens d'une amélioration de la compréhension et de la production écrites mais aussi à de rares occasions la compréhension orale. En réalité, la compréhension orale fait véritablement partie des tâches pédagogiques depuis 2005. De plus, bien que de plus en plus de vidéos soient tournées et échangées, le projet privilégie toujours l'écrit.

A partir de 2005 des partenariats ont été créés, issus du programme « Le français en première ligne », entre l'université de Grenoble et d'autres universités. Les programmes visent à encourager les étudiants inscrits en master de FLE à l'université de Grenoble à des petits travaux multimédias à destination d'étudiants éloignés géographiquement, puis de les inciter à échanger sur ces petites tâches. Tout ceci a pour but d'établir une communication réelle et authentique comportant de véritables échanges linguistiques et culturels et d'élever le niveau de compréhension et de production orale chez ces deux groupes d'étudiants. De toute évidence, ce projet amène également les étudiants à manipuler et à maîtriser les TICE notamment via la création de tâches, d'usage de la plate-forme Moodle ou d'outils multimédias. Ici il s'agit aussi de faire une place égale à l'oral et à l'écrit. Afin de combler cet écart et de rétablir l'équilibre entre les deux types de production, les projets de partenariat s'appuient sur une approche qui met l'accent sur la compréhension et la production orales, en particulier via un accompagnement par des tuteurs français pour corriger la prononciation. L'introduction de la vidéo fait l'objet d'une attention particulière aujourd'hui pour enregistrer des vidéos en direct ou tourner des séquences autour des tâches réalisées.

De nombreux projets de télécollaboration ne mettent pas en avant les productions orales des étudiants et délaissent parfois cet aspect en partie ou totalement. Certains systèmes, tels que «LYCEUM» de l'Open University, sont conçus pour parler et écrire en ligne dans le cadre d'une discussion instantanée. Quelques recherches ont également montré l'existence de systèmes de vidéoconférences utiles pour l'enseignement des langues (DEVELOTTE, GUICHON et KERN, 2007). Les apports langagiers de la vidéoconférence ont aussi été dévoilés par MARCELLI, GAVEAU et TOKIWA (2005) qui ont démontré que « l'utilisation

de la visioconférence fait appel à une réelle pédagogie de communication » et soulignaient que : « *cette utilisation apparaît comme un véritable moyen de favoriser l'actualisation et le développement des compétences orales en FLE des apprenants, tant du point de vue de la compréhension que de l'expression* ». En confrontant les interlocuteurs, la visioconférence met en place une véritable situation de communication multicanale donc à la fois mémo-gestuelle et verbale requérant une écoute active et une attention accrue des interlocuteurs.

Les projets comme « Le français en (première) ligne » sont novateurs dans l'élaboration de stratégies en production orale, et ont instigué le principe de la correction de prononciation.

1.2. Les stratégies pédagogiques pour l'entraînement à la production orale

Un nombre assez important de recherches ont été menées dans le champ de la compréhension et de la production orales sur les blogs éducatifs et la télécollaboration pour transmettre et corriger la prononciation des apprenants en FLE afin de renforcer l'authenticité de la communication, résoudre des situations problématiques réelles et accroître l'entraide et la collaboration entre apprenants. En vue d'augmenter la qualité des échanges, de la production orale et corriger la prononciation, diverses méthodes ont été explorées dont voici les plus significatives : La phonétique articulatoire (production des sons de parole, définition d'un phonème, position des différents organes pour émettre un son...). Egalement l'utilisation de jeux et simulations (écoute et répétition, oppositions phonologiques...), enfin, La méthode verbo-tonale en accord avec les recherches menées par GUBERINA et RENARD (le système des fautes de l'apprenant, les influences mutuelles entre les phonèmes, le recours à la prononciation nuancée...).

Ainsi, de très nombreuses ressources sonores (exercices auto-évaluations, podcasts radio, dictées, et vidéos pédagogiques et interculturelles), dont le but est d'améliorer la compréhension orale, sont disponibles et téléchargeables sur les blogs éducatifs. L'utilisation d'outils audio et vidéo pour tourner des séquences suscite une certaine motivation chez les apprenants dans la mesure où ceux-ci utilisent ces supports pour s'exprimer. De toute évidence, de tels outils intensifient la communication et la coopération entre les apprenants ou avec leurs enseignants-tuteurs comme ce fut le cas lors de la conception de séquences vidéos et du suivi des activités en direct du projet « Le français en (première) ligne ».

Les considérations théoriques qui encadrent ces stratégies pédagogiques sont disponibles sur le web sur le site de l'université de Grenoble à l'adresse : <http://fle-1-ligne.u-grenoble3.fr/index.html> . De la même façon, les modalités d'ordre pratique concernant les tâches et leur réalisation sont libres de consultation sur la rubrique « tâches et interactions ». Les enregistrements audio peuvent être écoutés en ligne sur « Documents Audios ». De même, diverses réalisations audio ou vidéo conçues par les étudiants sont accessibles sur le même site.

Corrections collaboratives et évaluations par les pairs

Il est impératif d'évoquer d'autres méthodes d'évaluation et de correction de la prononciation, et en particulier celles s'effectuant entre apprenants au cours de la réalisation de leurs tâches en particulier dans le contexte propice de l'enregistrement de vidéos, correspondant à la correction phonétique en collaboration. Ces corrections se font spontanément entre étudiants au cours de la préparation de leurs tâches orales individuelles ou collectives. Ainsi, ces derniers s'interrogent et se corrigent mutuellement, ou s'exercent en répétant certains mots ou phrases de vive voix avant de tourner la vidéo.

Dans l'impossibilité de tourner ou de transcrire des archives de ces situations, la décision a été prise de recréer celles-ci dans un environnement de réalisation de tâches ou scénario pédagogique. De cette façon, il a été suggéré aux apprenants de se filmer avec une webcam, une caméra ou un smartphone. Cette expérience a permis de collecter plusieurs séquences audiovisuelles illustrant les corrections phonétiques collectives. Dans le chapitre intitulé « Corriger en ligne : une activité complexe et chronophage », (MANGENOT et ZOUROU, 2007) pose la question de la correction phonétique des étudiants-tuteurs de l'université de Grenoble et distinguent trois méthodes de corrections pour la conception des séquences sonores.

La première méthode vise à recourir à l'écrit pour rebondir sur les productions par le biais de l'emploi de l'Alphabet Phonétique International (API). Cette méthode amène les apprenants à revenir sur et à réfléchir à leur prestation et à rédiger des commentaires d'ordre général, de souligner des problèmes et d'apporter des corrections sur la prononciation ciblées et fondées sur l'API.

La deuxième méthode a été développée afin d'être moins chronophage. Celle-ci visait à réenregistrer un message écrit par les apprenants FLE par un étudiant natif. Cette méthode est voisine d'une commande présente sur les cédéroms d'apprentissage des langues permettant à l'apprenant d'évaluer sa prononciation en la comparant à celle d'un locuteur natif tout en restant conscient que, de par sa position d'apprenant, certains phonèmes de la langue cible peuvent ne pas être identifiés.

La troisième méthode exigeait d'intégrer la voix d'un locuteur natif au cœur même de l'enregistrement par l'introduction de petites portions audio. Cette méthode comporte trois avantages majeurs : d'une part, elle requiert moins d'efforts de mémorisation de la part de l'apprenant, d'autre part, le tuteur en charge de la correction a la possibilité de corriger les segments concernés en modulant l'intensité ou l'intonation de sa voix pour mettre en évidence la correction à apporter. Enfin, cette méthode présente l'indéniable avantage de conférer un sentiment d'interactivité.

Ces exercices de correction collective s'avèrent performants dans l'amélioration de la prononciation dans la mesure où les apprenants effectuent un travail de réflexion et de correction sur leur prononciation qui requiert de mobiliser leurs connaissances et compétences dans une situation réelle de résolution de

problèmes. Pour se corriger, les apprenants doivent partir en quête de stratégies et d'outils qui facilitent la correction phonétique dans un contexte communicationnel réel car ils contribuent à un dialogue et un échange mais aussi parce qu'ils sont conscients qu'ils seront à la fois écoutés et regardés par d'autres interlocuteurs.

1.3. Les acquisitions et compétences des apprenants

Les expériences d'intégration de productions orales par le biais des blogs éducatifs dans un projet de télécollaboration concernent plusieurs matières intégrées à divers plans d'apprentissage. L'aboutissement pédagogique de ces acquisitions est corollaire au perfectionnement de l'apprentissage des apprenants. Ainsi, il est possible de discerner trois grandes orientations : l'acquisition des compétences TIC ; l'acquisition des compétences langagières et l'acquisition compétences interculturelles.

1.3.1. Les compétences TIC des apprenants

Ces initiatives ont permis aux apprenants de découvrir, de manipuler et de comprendre l'enjeu pédagogique de ces nouveaux outils et des TICE : podcasts et blogs audio, réalisations audiovisuelles, enregistreurs audio en ligne, réseaux sociaux etc.

Les apprenants se sont ainsi exercés à la communication et à la coopération en partenariat avec une autre université et ont travaillé ensemble dans le cadre du web 2.0 en concevant des blogs audio, en actualisant des réseaux sociaux, et en échangeant des messages sur des forums via les « Commentaires » ou en interagissant dans le cadre du projet de télécollaboration.

De cette façon, les apprenants apprennent à résoudre des situations problématiques dans le contexte d'une pédagogie fondée sur la réalisation de tâches et la conception de projets. Cela les encourage à faire appel à un certain esprit critique et à prendre des décisions au cours d'activités afin de solutionner des problèmes inhérents aux nouveaux outils et aux nouvelles interfaces numériques.

L'ensemble de ces impératifs amène les apprenants à redoubler de créativité et d'inspiration pour introduire les TIC dans leur pédagogie. Ainsi, la conception de blogs, la réalisation de séquences vidéo et audio ou les interactions thématiques avec les tuteurs poussent les apprenants à évoluer dans ce sens.

1.3.2. Compétences langagières des apprenants

Selon le CECRL, les compétences communicatives langagières fondamentales, qu'elles soient linguistiques, pragmatiques ou sociolinguistiques, sont mobilisées dans l'exécution d'activités communicatives langagières touchant à la fois à la réception, la production ou l'interaction.

Les apprenants ont diverses tâches à accomplir en rapport avec la compréhension orale telles que les dictées autocorrectives, l'écoute de podcasts, la consultation de réseaux sociaux vidéo ou audio, l'élaboration de scénarios pédagogiques requérant l'usage de matériels audio et vidéo authentiques de

communication et d'échange. Ainsi, la compréhension des messages issus d'un locuteur natif, la reconnaissance et l'identification des sons, la compréhension des informations ou des consignes orales des enregistrements audiovisuels accessibles sur Internet sont autant de choses rendues possibles grâce aux TICE. D'autres part, les apprenants accomplissent plusieurs tâches de production orale à accomplir telles que s'enregistrer pour effectuer des exercices de correction de prononciation, lire des textes et des travaux de rédaction enregistrés sur des blogs audio, sur Moodle ou les réseaux sociaux, tourner des vidéos, créer ou planifier un Hangout en direct avec Google+ etc . Toutes ces tâches ont pour but de reproduire des situations de communication authentiques via la résolution de tâches, le récit ou la description de situations pour la création de scénarios pédagogiques, l'élaboration d'exposés et réponses aux questions soulevées par les échanges à l'oral avec des étudiants ou les tuteurs de l'autre établissement en partenariat. L'ensemble de ces tâches fait émerger des situations communicationnelles réelles (conception de blogs par des apprenants, productions orales publiées sur les réseaux sociaux ou sur diverses plateformes au cœur des programmes de télécollaboration).

Grâce à l'ensemble de ces activités et à l'usage intelligent des TICE et du web 2.0, les apprenants acquièrent de larges compétences linguistiques (à la fois lexicales, grammaticales, orthographiques et phonologiques), mais également des compétences sociolinguistiques et pragmatiques dans des situations de communications authentiques.

1.3.3. *Compétences interculturelles des apprenants*

Nombre de recherches et d'études propres à la théorie socioculturelle et de la didactique des langues incluent des caractéristiques épistémologiques telles que l'acquisition naturelle d'une deuxième langue, l'apprentissage d'une langue étrangère dans un environnement éducatif formel, ou soulignent le substrat culturel de la langue professée. C'est la raison pour laquelle le CECRL insiste également autant sur l'importance des compétences socioculturelles. Il faut, en effet, comprendre qu'il s'agit d'autant de connaissances, savoir-vivre, savoir-faire, et de savoir-apprendre nécessitant une adaptation des attitudes et des représentations de la culture cible ce qui permettra aux apprenants de mettre à jour leurs savoirs dans des situations et des environnements interculturels divers transmis par les tâches et les projets pédagogiques, qui leur permettent de participer à ouvrir leur relation à la diversité linguistique et leur conscience linguistique, communicative, et phonétique.

Les étudiants doivent faire preuve d'imagination pour faire la liaison entre leur culture et la culture francophone, pour comprendre les nuances internes et propres à chaque culture, et pour pallier les dysfonctionnements et les décalages inhérents à toute communication interculturelle.

Le présent travail a été l'occasion de revenir sur les apports majeurs des outils d'intégration des TICE à la compréhension et la production orales a explicité les deux fonctions essentielles que permettent les technologies modernes que sont la collecte d'informations et les modalités de communication. Ainsi, cela a permis d'observer les contributions des TICE à la compréhension orale à travers le prisme des deux approches, tout d'abord par le multimédia qui conjugue supports audio, visuels et audiovisuels ce qui simplifie et enrichit les activités de compréhension, mais aussi par les ressources pédagogiques en ligne et autres progrès technologiques liés à l'essor d'Internet avantageuse aux enseignants mais aussi aux apprenants. Ces innovations rendent accessibles les médias en ligne et favorisent tous types de communication.

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